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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The Atlantic City meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was fully attended. It canvassed a number of important problems.

The president, Mr. Lyon, of Cincinnati, started in his presidential address the discussion of a readjustment of courses so as to fit the needs of those students who cannot succeed in the present courses of the high school. This led to a number of statements of plans in operation in different parts of the country for taking care of such students. One gets an impression in the course of such a discussion that the high school is adapting its work to individual differences to a degree that is little recognized by those who are accustomed to think of the high school as a conservative and inflexible institution. It would be very well if those who took part in such a discussion could be led to realize the advantage of brief written statements about their experiments. The country would benefit from a broader interchange of such experiences.

A second general subject much discussed was the classifying of students according to their grades of intelligence. It is evidently coming to be common in progressive schools to differentiate

instruction so as to suit it to students' needs more closely than is possible in the conventional class organization. The methods of distributing students into different groups of varying ability range all the way from straightforward reliance on a single test to combinations of tests and teachers' judgments. Here again experience should be interchanged freely, because the pitfalls are many and only through comparison of experiences can mistakes be avoided. In the main, one carries away from such a discussion as was held the conviction that suitable classification is very desirable but not easy to attain. It is desirable because it promotes effective teaching. It is hard to attain because the ordinary tests do not give adequate ground for discriminating latent abilities which it is the business of the teacher to arouse.

A third item on which report may be made was the organization of an honor-scholarship society. The discussion of the report favoring the organization of such a society brought out the fact that there are a number of successful societies of this type now in existence. There is one in New York City which was very fully described. There is one with sixty-five centers in the state of Massachusetts. The private academies have one which has been in existence for a number of years and has a national organization.

The new society sanctioned by the vote taken at Atlantic City is to affiliate with itself as many of these organizations as possible and to make itself the center of a general movement which it is hoped will give scholarship the central place which it should have in the attention of high-school students.

Finally, reference may be made to a renewal of the effort of the Association to develop materials for social-science teaching. The list of volunteers who agreed to co-operate in the preparation of lessons was revised, and the committee was instructed to push the campaign for a more vigorous attack on its problem. All high-school officers who are interested in co-operating in the preparation and exchange of lesson material on community activities are requested to send their names to the chairman of the committee, Mr. H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton Township High School, Cicero, Illinois, or to the secretary of the committee, Mr. C. H. Judd, University of Chicago. They will be supplied

with full lists of the co-operating volunteers and will be given any help which the committee can contribute.

Officers elected for the coming year are: president, Principal M. C. Prunty, Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; secretary, Principal H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton Township High School, Cicero, Illinois.

THE SOCIETY OF COLLEGE TEACHERS OF EDUCATION

The Society of College Teachers of Education met for three half-days during the week immediately preceding the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. The meeting was a success in point of numbers, being one of the largest in the history of the society. The reports of committees and the papers presented were of the usual mixed variety. A handbook of abstracts was distributed at the meeting and can be had by addressing the secretary, Miss F. E. Bamberger, of Johns Hopkins University. Bee

On the whole, the reports of the committees of this society must be confessed to lack what is known in vulgar language as "punch." They are prepared for the most part late in the year, and they are in some cases painful efforts to keep alive committees which have done valuable service in the past and should be allowed to rest on their laurels.

The issues with which this society should deal are of the largest importance. Teacher-training institutions have been passing through a period of serious depression. Recruiting of those who are to keep alive scientific investigations of school problems requires wisdom of organization and effective application of energy. The normal-school presidents are fully alive to the gravity of the situation, but college teachers seem to be unaware of the problems that confront them.

If one tries to put the issue concretely, one may ask such questions as the following: What is the proper adjustment of academic courses to professional courses? What should a college department of education do with normal-school graduates who enter for the last two years of a college course? What are the proper courses to require for a Master's degree in education? Shall we have a degree for advanced students in education which

implies and requires no research? Shall students be admitted to graduate courses in education without special preliminary training in the field?

One might go on enumerating vital questions of organization which will have to be answered in the future, and one is tempted to push the suggestion that they be taken up frankly.

College teachers of education ought to develop a class consciousness, or a problem consciousness, or whatever it is that makes groups attack their real problems. There is no danger of lack of helpful variation in practice in a country like ours. There is grave danger that leadership and effectiveness of action will be lost because the essential problems of this professional group are not faced openly and boldly so as to secure the wholesome degree of uniformity of practice which always comes with publicity.

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

The issues which were raised and only partly settled at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence, when certain votes were adopted looking toward the establishment of a more compact and independent organization, are not easy to unravel. There can be no doubt that some of the superintendents are convinced that they ought to meet quite independently and ought to detach themselves entirely from the National Education Association. The majority are apparently not ready to take the extreme step of becoming wholly independent, but want something quite different from that which now exists. They hardly know how to bring about the desired changes without overdoing the matter of independent organization.

The votes passed accomplished three very definite results: First, the business of the department is hereafter to be transacted on the vote of a restricted membership. Only superintendents can participate. Second, the department now has an executive committee and a system of election which is by ballot and provides, therefore, against the dangers of the simpler organizations where a president elected by mass voting was all-powerful. Third, the department has declared itself to be financially independent, thus taking the first step toward providing itself with funds to carry on the work of its own committees and its own organization.

The Executive Committee of the National Education Association met after these revolutionary actions had been taken and declared themselves as in sympathy with the department and quite willing to make adjustments so far as the charter of the central organization would permit. There was a great deal of doubt expressed as to the legality of the drastic actions taken in view of the fact that the department is a branch of the National Education Association and not a separate corporate entity. The Executive Committee of the National Education Association was, however, fully aware of the temper of the meeting, which was one of securing a large degree of independence by any means necessary, and it was undoubtedly wise in its conciliatory efforts to meet demands for independence with agreements as far as possible.

The real issues involved have been growing clear for some years past. The superintendents find that their winter meeting has steadily increased in size and influence. The increase in size has brought with it complications. The program is crowded with accessories. People of all kinds come to the main meetings and to the accessories in such numbers that the superintendents as a group have no adequate opportunity to discuss their special problems or to express their judgments as a compact group of administrators.

Dependence on the central National Education Association has not been a satisfactory relationship. While the general association has been quarreling about politics, has been boss-ridden, and has been trying to settle the question of sex domination, the department has been unable to get funds with which to pursue its work and has been continually in fear of being swamped at its meetings by the overflow of politics from the summer meeting. The action at Atlantic City was notice that there are a great many people who do not like petty politics mixed with education. It is very much to be hoped that this notice will be taken seriously as a guide to the new organization which is to be set up this summer when the representatives come together in session at Des Moines. In the meantime there is some uncertainty as to what will happen next winter. Helped by the fact that inauguration cut short the week of the general meeting, the officers of the department were

able this year to put most of the meetings of affiliated groups into the week preceding that of the main meeting. The result was that a great many people had to be away from their posts for the better part of two weeks. This arrangement is not satisfactory from the point of view of the affiliated meetings, and it did not seem to serve in any very satisfactory degree in clearing the way for the general meetings.

The department expressed itself as preferring New Orleans as the next meeting place, and there was some discussion about the desirability of going to cities which are too small to provide accommodations for the present big meeting.

The complications which this situation uncovers ought to receive the serious consideration of all who are interested in the setting up of an effective national organization of the educational profession. There are large problems confronting the schools which can be solved only through organized effort. There must be some way of organizing the teachers and friends of education effectively. That way certainly does not lie along the path followed in recent years by the National Education Association. It is only fair that the reorganized association be allowed to try its new plans. The reorganized association ought probably to change its date of meeting. It ought to make provision for the leaders of American education to share in its councils, not primarily by way of speeches, but through carefully formulated committee reports which will lead to the establishment of well-matured policies. It ought to find some way of putting out of business those who exploit the association for partisan and local ends. It ought to begin constructive work on the solution of real problems. It ought to bring back, if it can, the day of influential reports on the national problems of school organization.

If the general association cannot do these things, then it is to be hoped that the superintendents will carry to its logical conclusion their protest and set up another professional organization which will deal with these matters. There can be no doubt where the influential forces in American education now come to a focus. It is at the winter meeting.

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL

The following statement quoted from a news bulletin issued by the University of Wisconsin is of interest for two reasons. It gives a clearer notion of the magnitude of the American experiment in higher education than do most statistical accounts. Indeed, the ordinary figures greatly minimize the attendance on higher institutions because they compare attendance with the total population rather than with the number who can, because of their age, be expected to be enrolled.

In the second place, this statement shows, as did an investigation of the same type of facts in Minnesota, that college attendance and high-school attendance are closely related. The parallel growth of the two institutions is one of the most important facts about American higher education.

The full statement is as follows:

That almost one-half the graduates of Wisconsin high schools now go on to college, university, or normal school was pointed out by President E. A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin, last week while discussing the remarkable progress of higher education in the state during the last decade.

"Every year nearly 4,000 Wisconsin high-school graduates go somewhere to college—to the state university, to the smaller colleges of the state, to the normal schools," he said. "The same situation exists throughout the states of the great Northwest territory. The higher educational institutions must count upon admitting each year between one-third and one-half of the annual graduating classes of the high schools of their territories."

President Birge's figures are based upon a study which he has carried on to learn why during the last ten years, while the population of the state has increased about 12 per cent, the enrolment of the state university has increased about eight times as fast—practically 100 per cent.

"Enrolment in the high schools has more than doubled in these ten years. Attendance at the university has doubled. The other colleges in the state have grown just as rapidly," he said.

"The index of university and college growth would therefore appear to be in the high schools—not in total population. The University of Wisconsin, doubling in size each decade, increasing 40 per cent since 1916, has grown practically at the same rate as the state high schools. If the slowly increasing population of the state continues to send an ever increasing proportion of its youth to high schools, the state must expect its colleges and universities to grow at a similarly increasing rate.

"Wisconsin high schools enrol at present about 30 per cent of the youth of high-school age—between 14 and 18 years. There are roughly 210,000 boys and girls of this age in the state and, of these, about 60,000 are attending high school.

"Between 8,000 and 9,000 young people were graduated from Wisconsin high schools in 1919. The next fall, the freshman classes of Wisconsin colleges, university, and normal schools totalled more than one-half that number—1,700 entered the university, 1,600 other colleges, 1,400 entered the normal schools, totalling 4,700.

"Practically 17,000 students are enrolled in institutions of higher education in the state this year—7,000 in the university, 6,000 in other colleges, and 4,000 in the normal schools. Census statistics indicate that there are roughly 210,000 persons of college age—between 18 and 22 years old—in the state. Those who are in college constitute therefore more than 8 per cent—an enormous proportion, if you think of it in terms of the past.

"The fact that some Wisconsin students go out of the state to college does not affect the situation greatly for they are largely balanced by non-residents who come in."

PROFESSIONAL READINGS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

One of the most frequently repeated requests received by the writer of this note is for lists of books suitable for the professional reading of members of high-school faculties. The following list was prepared for Omaha, Nebraska, teachers by Mr. Leon O. Smith of that city. We are glad to make it available for a wider circle.

GENERAL READING

HENRY ADAMS. *The Education of Henry Adams*. This autobiography is a story of education, but it has an individuality which raises it above many autobiographies and memoirs.

CORNELIA S. PARKER. *An American Idyll: The Life of Carleton H. Parker*. An intimate story of home life and the application of social psychology to modern industrial situations.

UPTON SINCLAIR. *The Brass Check*. An exposé of modern newspaper methods.

J. RUSSELL SMITH. *Commerce and Industry*. Henry Holt & Co., 1920. This book is not a mere catalogue of facts and statistics; it is an attempt to explain how man's industries are determined by his environment.

GENERAL SECONDARY-SCHOOL LITERATURE

ALEXANDER INGLIS. *Principles of Secondary Education*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. 741. Part I, "The Pupils." Part II, "The Insti-

tution and Its Purpose." Part III, "The Means and Materials of Secondary Education." Probably the best general book on the subject. Contains an excellent list of references at the end of each chapter.

CHARLES H. JOHNSTON AND OTHERS. *The Modern High School: Its Administration and Extension*. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914. Pp. 847. Full of examples and interpretations of significant movements, such as co-operative agencies, social activities, and continuation work.

DAVID SNEDDEN. *Problems of Secondary Education*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 333. A collection of papers in the form of letters dealing with the objectives or purposes of secondary education.

JOHN E. STOUT. *The High School: Its Function, Organization and Administration*. D. C. Heath, 1914. Pp. 322. One of the pioneer attempts at accounting for the purpose and nature of the high school in terms of its social background.

High-School Conference. Urbana, Illinois. *Proceedings*, 1918, 1919. Paper, free. University of Illinois.

PSYCHOLOGY

H. L. HOLLINGWORTH AND A. T. POFFENBERGER. *Applied Psychology*. One of the very best books on psychology as applied to daily life.

CHARLES H. JUDD. *Psychology of High-School Subjects*. Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 515. Relation of psychology to specific curricula and a final chapter on general problems in secondary education.

C. C. PETERS. *Human Conduct*. A general treatment.

METHODS

S. S. COLVIN. *An Introduction to High-School Methods*. Macmillan Co. Best of all.

S. C. PARKER. *Exercises for Methods of Teaching in High School*. Ginn & Co., 1918. One of a very few books which actually illustrate methods in high-school teaching.

G. D. STRAYER AND N. L. ENGELHARDT. *The Classroom Teacher at Work in American Schools*. American Book Co., 1920. A general treatment of principles of proper classroom procedure.

HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

THOMAS A. CLARK. *The High-School Boy and His Problems*. Macmillan Co. Pp. 194. The author is dean of men at the University of Illinois.

F. N. FREEMAN. "Types of High-School Students," *School Review*, XXVIII (May, 1920), 383-87.

IRVING KING. *The High-School Age*. Bobbs-Merrill, 1914. Pp. 233. A most comprehensive study of physical, mental, and moral development during adolescence.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

G. VERNON BENNETT. *The Junior High School*. Warwick & York, 1919. Pp. 220. Introductory part of the book is especially good. Appendix contains sample courses of study and selected bibliography.

THOMAS H. BRIGGS. *The Junior High School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. Pp. 350. The latest work from one of the very few authorities. Selected bibliography, pp. 329-48.

AUBREY AUGUSTUS DOUGLASS. *The Junior High School*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1916. Pp. 157. This was published as Part III of the *Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*.

L. V. KOOS. *The Junior High School*. Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920. Contains tests of the organization programs of study and the requirements of a standard junior high school.

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

JAMES M. GLASS. "Classification of Pupils in Ability Groups," *School Review*, XXVIII (September, 1920), 495-508.

W. M. PROCTOR. "The Use of Psychological Tests in Vocational Guidance of High-School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, September, 1920, pp. 533-47.

L. M. TERMAN. *The Intelligence of School Children*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 317. A worthy companion volume to his earlier educational classic, *The Measurement of Intelligence*. One chapter devoted to high-school pupils.

M. R. TRABUE AND F. P. STOCKBRIDGE. *Measure Your Mind*. Doubleday, Page & Co., 1920. Pp. 349. A popular treatise on the measurement of intelligence by scientific methods.

C. S. YOAKUM AND R. M. YERKES. *Army Mental Tests*. Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. 303. Complete information relative to all forms of the army tests.

TEACHERS' MARKS OF PUPILS

F. P. O'BRIEN. *High-School Failures*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1919. \$1.40.

JOHN L. STEWART. "Uniformity of Teachers' Marks versus Variability," *School Review*, XXVIII (September, 1920), 529-33.

Denver Report, 1918-19. Pp. 50-75. A splendid discussion, including a bibliography of twelve good references.

MISCELLANEOUS

W. JERUSALEM. *Problems of the Secondary Teacher*. R. G. Badger, 1918. \$1.75.

H. W. NUTT. *Supervision of Instruction*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. \$1.80.

- W. F. RUSSELL. *Schools in Siberia*. J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919. \$1.50.
W. R. SMITH. *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 412.
H. P. WRIGHT. *The Young Man and Teaching*. Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. 280.

THE CONCORD PLAN IN ENGLISH

The New Hampshire State Teachers Bulletin gives a statement of a device for improving English in the schools which seems sound in principle and promising of many kinds of good results.

The statement opens with an account of the assumptions underlying the plan. One of these is given as follows:

Another assumption underlying the Concord plan is that the pupil should do more in the way of self-checking. He has not had enough responsibility thrown upon him. Meek teachers have patiently called attention with red ink to repeated mistakes so long that the pupil has identified this sort of treatment as part of his heritage in English training. It has been a carrying over of the practices of early days in the nursery; mother picked up the playthings. The Concord plan is an entering wedge into that type of teaching that keeps the child in the nursery. It forces the pupil to take better care of himself.

Equipped with this assumption the teachers developed the following mechanics of execution:

Each teacher is given a rubber stamp and an ink pad. The stamp reads "Avoidable error: correct." This is used on a pupil's paper written in or out of class on which appears any violation of requirements for that pupil's grade and the grades preceding it. There may be more than one error. The teacher simply places the stamp on the paper, and the pupil knows that there is at least one error which he himself must find and correct before that paper will be accepted.

The pupils have responded admirably to the plan. The novelty of it impressed them at first, but after a few months of its operation its inexorable-ness made the greater impression, and the worst offenders are now capitulating in large numbers.

NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

HIGH-SCHOOL DRAMATICS

Girls' High School of Atlanta, Georgia.—Four organizations, with a membership of five hundred girls, are doing dramatic work in Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior clubs. In these clubs the development of the pupil is the aim, and the presentation

of plays themselves of secondary importance. To be accepted by the faculty, a play must have educational value and historical or legendary background. This background is carefully studied before rehearsals begin. For instance, if *Twig of Thorn* is the play chosen, talks are given on Celtic folklore, beliefs in the little people, and peculiar customs. If *Rising of the Moon* is chosen, the growth of the Irish National Theatre and its effect on the people are studied. Even a simple *Ali Baba* has an interesting background. Historical plays always mean much delving into reference books and study of customs. The city library gives invaluable aid. The whole group takes part in this advance study, which proves one of the most educational features of the club activity. Each year a play or pageant bearing on some subject in the regular curriculum is arranged. There have been given English plays and pageants, French plays, Latin plays, chemistry plays, many of them written entirely by the club members.

The Writers Club, an outgrowth of the Dramatic Club, has written a morality play for Better Speech Week and a very elaborate English pageant portraying the periods of English literature. The Freshman and Sophomore Dramatic clubs, in addition to three plays during the year, present what they call "program meetings" once a month. The Juniors are allowed four short plays during the year and are eligible to membership in the Senior Study Club. The Seniors divide the work into Players Club, Study Club, and community-service work. The Players Club has honorary membership in the City Drama League, and the members are admitted for half-price to Drama League lectures, while the City Drama League furnishes regular programs during the year.

The Study Club varies its programs at will and is interested in subjects like the "Irish National Theatre," the "Growth of Little Theatres in America," "College Dramatics," "Children's Educational Theatres," "Marionette Theaters," "Community Pageants," the "California Passion Play," and "Performances in the Greek Theatre in California." In these monthly programs an outsider gives a short talk on the subject, and the Players Club illustrates with a short play. For example, one program was devoted to the

Portmanteau Theatre. The life of Stuart Walker was attractively presented, and the play *Six Who Pass while the Lentils Boil* was given. For the Irish Theatre program the players illustrated with *The Rising of the Moon*. The development of Children's Educational Theatres was illustrated by Constance Mackay's pioneer play *The Fountain of Youth*. When the subject was "Marionette Theatres" a member of the City Drama League told the story of marionettes, and a real marionette play was given by two high-school boys who owned a marionette theater. The Tony Sorg Marionettes are to give a performance in the near future. In connection with the Study Club the girls have heard Granville Barker, Frederick Warde, Robert Mantell, Hugh Walpole, and numbers of others. This group has a very attractive bulletin board near the library door, on which are displayed pictures and accounts of college and community dramatics.

The Players Club, using the group system, at the beginning of the school year chooses four group chairmen who divide the members of the club equally. These groups draw lots and present plays in the order drawn. With the advice of the faculty chairman members of each group choose their play, select their caste, and elect a stage manager. The plays are usually one-act plays and are limited in rehearsal. The faculty chairman leaves as much as possible to the girls. It is an unwritten law that a girl who has had a leading part in one play takes a minor part in another. As there are only girls in the school, old-fashioned or period plays are usually given.

After a play has been presented to the student body the community-service work begins. Each play is allowed one performance at a social-service center, and there are always more calls than we can fill. Some of the best results come from this work; it teaches the girls the joy of service and is a test of their ability to handle difficult situations, as the social centers usually have no equipment other than a small platform and a few tables and chairs. The next community-service work on our program is the giving of a play for the men in government service who are taking vocational courses at the various colleges in the city.

ANNABEL HORN

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

SUMMER-QUARTER COURSES IN HOME ECONOMICS

Teachers of different phases of home economics will be interested in the courses planned by the Department of Home Economics. Teachers of clothing and related subjects will be interested in the following courses: garment construction, given by Ethel Webb of the Carnegie Institute of Technology; millinery, given by Vera H. Loewen, formerly a teacher of millinery, now a wholesale milliner; costume design; house planning and furnishing; history of furnishing; a general-survey course in textiles; advanced textiles; the buying of textiles.

For teachers of home management "Economics of the Home" discusses wise expenditure of income and of household labor; "Mechanical Care of the Home" includes a study of modern household equipment with time studies on labor-saving devices. The courses in buying of textiles and marketing will also be of interest.

Teachers of food and nutrition may select from the following courses: experimental cooking, essential to an intelligent understanding of recent developments in principles of cooking; food chemistry; nutrition, including metabolism studies, and a course of readings in nutrition; dietaries, with discussion of food requirements of children and adults; elementary work in nutrition and dietaries for students desiring a brief survey.

"Methods of Conducting Nutrition Classes for Children" will give special training in teaching nutrition to children, the technique of which is needed by extension and social workers as well as by home-economics teachers. This work will be supplemented by a course in child care to be given by a physician.

Managers of school lunchrooms may secure training in institution cooking, equipment, management, and marketing. Practical experience is provided in the cafeterias of the University.

Uniting these different subjects and connecting them closely with the daily classroom problems of the teacher are the courses in methods of teaching home economics. "Organization and Supervision of Home Economics," which discusses the place of home economics in the general curriculum, the use of tests in home-economics classes, and other problems connected with the supervision of home economics in city and rural schools, is offered especially for supervisors.

SUMMER-QUARTER COURSES IN ART

The Department of Art Education will give courses in drawing and painting, design, modeling, and ceramics, planned especially for teachers of art and for art supervisors.

A course in advanced drawing and painting, given during the first term by Miss Laura van Pappelendam and continued during the second term by Miss Ethel Coe, deals with perspective, composition, methods of drawing, and the use of water colors. These instructors are teachers at the Art Institute and have recognized positions as painters. Courses in modeling will be offered during the first term by Miss Antoinette Hollister and in pottery during both terms by Assistant Professor Whitford.

A course in color in pictorial and decorative art, consisting partly of lectures on color and its uses and partly of technical work illustrating typical color combinations, will be given during the first term by Professor Sargent. During the second term Professor Sargent will give a course in the elements of pictorial expression, which consists partly of lectures and partly of technical work in the elements of pictorial composition.

Mr. Fultz, of the University High School, will give courses in mechanical drawing, including machine details, machine mechanics, building details, perspective, and shades and shadows.

A supervisors' course in art instruction, including aims of art education, courses of study, methods of grading, standards of attainment, technique of supervision, and other problems of art supervision, will be given by Assistant Professor Whitford.

Professor Sargent will give a course in the Department of Education for students of education and of art education presenting the underlying principles of fine and industrial arts.

THE ACTUAL OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT-DAY HIGH SCHOOL

FRANKLIN BOBBITT
University of Chicago

The high-school training of boys and girls, we are told with ever increasing frequency, should develop within them actually needed personal characteristics and abilities. The exact schedule of these abilities has not yet been agreed upon by our profession. But we are awake to the problem; and widespread discussion is well under way. An auspicious beginning has been made in the formulation of the specific abilities and characteristics.

The most authoritative statement of these objectives comes from the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. In their *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* they present seven general classes of objectives: (1) vocation; (2) citizenship; (3) health; (4) worthy use of leisure; (5) command of fundamental processes; (6) worthy home membership; (7) ethical character.

In the judgment of the commission, every high-school subject should be made as completely functional as possible in the sense of contributing to one or more of these objectives. They say:

Each subject now taught in high schools is in need of extensive reorganization in order that it may contribute more effectively to the objectives outlined herein, and the place of such subject in secondary education should depend upon the value of such contribution.

Now to what extent, in the current school year, is the high school actually aiming at these objectives? And when not consciously aiming at them, to what extent are the subjects actually contributory to their attainment? And further, what subjects, if any, are taught which seemingly make no sufficient contribution to any of them?

For the purpose of obtaining some light upon the situation, the writer recently secured from fifty-one high schools, selected

at random and distributed widely over the country, the daily programs of classes being conducted the first semester of the school year 1920-21. These were all of the general or cosmopolitan type. No technical high school was included, though in some the technical portion of the work was very fully developed. The purpose was to discover the subjects actually being taught, and the relative emphases upon them. The question asked was: "How many classes are being conducted daily in each subject?"

It was felt that a count of the number of classes daily in subjects would show actual relative valuations better than a count of the number of children taking each subject. With a given number of students in a subject, it may be handled perfunctorily and carelessly in a few large classes, or carefully and thoroughly in a larger number of relatively small classes. The percentage of daily classes, therefore, would be a better index of relative valuations and emphases than the percentage of children taking the subjects.

Since high schools are of different sizes, we have taken from each for study an equal unit, namely, one hundred daily classes: whether single or double periods; and we asked this question, "In each high school in each one hundred actual daily class recitations this current semester, how many are there in each subject?"

The composite situation for the country as exemplified in this group of high schools is shown in Table I. Since our purpose has been to discover the relation between the actual curriculum and the objectives considered desirable, we have presented subjects sometimes individually and sometimes grouped in various ways. The same subject, therefore, enters into the table more than once in most cases. Since specific subjects in certain well-known groups, as, for example, the science group or the mathematics group, aim at about the same objectives, these groups are not broken up into their specifics. The figures show the median number of classes per hundred in each subject or group of subjects.

The table is arranged so as to show at a glance the relative emphases upon different subjects and groups of subjects. It shows that vocational subjects are pushing to the fore. Classes aiming at vocational objectives are more numerous than those of

any other group. English seems to be holding its own. The disciplinary subjects of mathematics and foreign languages,

TABLE I

NUMBER OF DAILY CLASS GROUPS PER 100 IN EACH SUBJECT OR GROUP OF SUBJECTS IN THE 51 REPRESENTATIVE HIGH SCHOOLS*

	Median
1. Occupational subjects (7, 16, 19, 21, 23, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32)	27.8
2. Occupational subjects open to boys (7, 19, 21, 23, 26, 29, 30, 32)	20.7
3. Occupational subjects open to girls (7, 16, 21, 26, 29, 30, 31)	20.7
4. English	19.8
5. Practical arts—all	13.9
6. Mathematics	13.6
7. Commercial subjects	11.5
8. Social studies (15, 22, 25, 26, 29, 30)	10.7
9. Science, physical and biological	9.7
10. Practical arts open to boys	8.6
11. History (15, 22, 29, 30)	8.1
12. Practical arts open to girls	7.5
13. Modern languages	6.7
14. Latin	6.1
15. Ancient and European history	5.2
16. Household occupations	5.0
17. Physical training: gymnasium, etc.	3.9
18. French	3.7
19. Shop activities for boys	3.5
20. Spanish	2.9
21. Drawing and design, freehand, etc.	2.9
22. United States history	2.4
23. Mechanical drawing	1.9
24. Music	1.8
25. Civics, social problems, sociology, etc.	1.5
26. Economics4
27. Physiology (in science department)1
28. Hygiene and sanitation0
29. Economic geography0
30. Economic history0
31. Teacher-training classes0
32. Agriculture0

*Each subject is numbered. The numbers following certain subject groups show the individual subjects included. Where subjects are grouped, they were combined for each high school separately before medians were found. Adding the medians of individual subjects will not give quite the same figure and is not a valid method. A zero median means that fewer than one-half of the high schools had courses in the subject. For the subject, the higher percentiles, presented in other tables, show what is being done in this minority of progressive schools.

particularly the latter, are losing ground. The ancient languages have been outdistanced by the modern. German has disappeared from the curriculum, its place having been taken by French;

and Spanish has appeared as the second modern language. In both mathematics and foreign languages, however, there are more classes daily than in social subjects, science, citizenship training, health training, and other matters of pressing modern need. Social studies deal mainly with the past, those relating to current problems being found near the bottom of the list. Physical training is receiving considerable attention. Hygiene and sanitation are not taken seriously. The display would seem to indicate that we have few health problems. Judging from the number of daily classes, civics is considered of less importance than music, drawing, Spanish, French, manual training, cooking, Latin, ancient history, or algebra. The program would appear to indicate that citizens in a democracy have few civic problems, and those simple and easy as compared with Latin or algebra.

Let us, however, look at the subjects from the point of view of the objectives sanctioned by the national commission.

AMOUNT OF EFFORT MADE TO ACHIEVE THE VOCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The tables show that on an average there are more classes daily devoted to the achievement of vocational objectives than to any other. Vocational subjects comprise about 28 per cent of the total actual curriculum. The more progressive half of high schools give one-third of their time to vocation; and the schools highest on the list give considerably more than a third of their time. Even those that are low on the scale are organizing numerous vocational classes. The lowest ten schools show an average of seventeen classes per hundred. This is higher than the average number of classes in any of the old-line subjects with the single exception of English; and it approaches the average of the English very closely.

When one inquires as to the practical justification of the large amount of high-school mathematics and physical science, usually the vocational justification is the one which is first presented. Thus, the amount of effort devoted to the attainment of vocational objectives is considerably greater than indicated by the foregoing figures. Naturally much of the vocational argument in favor of high-school mathematics and science is specious, since, for example,

the algebra and geometry are of actual vocational value for practically none of the girls and for only a minority of the boys; and the same is true of much of the science. But the fact that the high school turns first to the vocational justification is further evidence of the growing valuation of vocational preparation.

When one looks to the amount of time devoted to the vocational subjects, it appears that we are doing very well. When, however, one looks at the details of the program, then one becomes less certain as to the sufficiency of our effort. Most boys, for example,

TABLE II
NUMBER OF DAILY CLASSES PER 100 IN VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS*

	Highest	Ninety Percentile	Q ₃	M	Q ₁	Ten Percentile	Lowest
All vocational.....	41.6	35.4	32.3	27.8	20.5	16.8	8.3
Vocational for boys.....	39.1	30.5	27.8	20.7	14.9	11.3	5.1
Vocational for girls.....	31.9	26.4	24.7	20.7	15.7	12.0	6.8
All practical arts.....	32.5	18.9	16.2	13.9	10.2	8.3	.0
Practical arts—boys.....	20.7	13.8	11.3	8.6	5.7	3.7	.0
Practical arts—girls.....	20.4	10.2	8.9	7.5	5.8	4.6	.0
Commercial.....	25.8	19.2	16.8	11.5	8.4	4.9	.0
Shop.....	12.1	6.7	5.4	3.5	2.1	.5	.0
Household occupations...	17.4	6.3	5.7	5.0	3.6	2.1	.0
Drawing and design.....	6.3	4.4	3.6	2.9	1.3	.0	.0
Mechanical drawing.....	5.5	4.1	3.1	1.9	.8	.0	.0
Teacher training.....	2.1	1.2	.4	.0	.0	.0	.0
Agriculture.....	1.8	1.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Economic geography.....	2.6	1.5	.6	.0	.0	.0	.0
Economics.....	2.2	1.2	.6	.4	.0	.0	.0
Economic history.....	4.0	1.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0

* Where a portion of the range is made up of zeros, the actual situation is shown only in the positive portion. The lower zeros stand for unknown negative quantities.

who take cabinet-making, joinery, forge, foundry, machine-shop, printing, etc., do not really intend to become cabinet-makers, joiners, blacksmiths, foundrymen, machinists, or printers. The boys are not really aiming at preparation for their specialized callings. It is at least a fair question whether this shopwork or shop-play actually aims at attaining vocational objectives.

One argument for diversified shop activities is the familiar vocational guidance "try-out" argument. Where the school offers only the conventional manual-training subjects, however, the "try-out" covers a very restricted range indeed. The things are few, conditions artificial, and the necessary responsibility

lacking. And further, this argument cannot apply to that large percentage of boys taking these courses who have already decided to go into the professions or into commerce. Even for the few who are trying to decide whether they will become carpenters or blacksmiths—and they are very few indeed—it appears to be a pretty wasteful method, unless it is justified on other grounds at the same time.

There are other justifications for the manual training, but they relate to general training rather than to the specialized vocational.

1. It provides concrete experiences with the tools, materials, and processes employed in important economic fields. It gives the boys the alphabet of experience necessary for appreciating some of the labors of that complex economic world in which they must play their specialized parts.

2. It is preparation for the performance of many kinds of unspecialized activities about the house, furnace-room, garden, garage, motor car, etc. It is individually and socially economical for the individual himself to take care of a considerable number of miscellaneous mechanical labors rather than to turn them over to specialists. This diversity of experience is otherwise good for the individual in a number of ways. We cannot here enter into the arguments, but it appears that there is large justification, not well developed in our usual professional theory, for setting up a very considerable range of unspecialized abilities as educational objectives. These demand diversified experiences with tools, materials, and processes of kinds that the ordinary man currently meets with. It demands a program that is quite different in many respects from the conventional manual-training, mechanical-drawing program. The recent tendency in progressive high schools to introduce the assembling and disassembling of all sorts of familiar machines and contrivances, automobile adjustment and repair, furniture repair, short courses in many technical fields, as, for example, cement construction, sheet-metal work, painting and decorating, gardening, etc., appears to indicate a considerable recognition of these unspecialized objectives. It must be confessed, however, that for any such goals of effort the usual manual-training courses are in need of large readjustment.

3. There is the further argument of general physical and mental discipline through diversity of constructive experiences. Here also there is doubtless justification for a proper shop program. The disciplinary objectives, however, need to be more accurately defined; and the specific values of different manual-training activities for attaining these objectives need to be more accurately determined before we can decide as to the values for the purpose of the shop activities.

We must conclude that for boys, excepting for the commercial or clerical occupations, there is comparatively little training given which aims definitely at preparation for specialized vocation. There is a larger amount which aims at certain unspecialized abilities.

The occupational training of the girls appears to be rather more effective. It is true here also that except for the clerical occupations the high school is aiming at unspecialized activities. But woman's usual work in the home consists mainly of those unspecialized activities about the house which have not yet gone out into specialized industry. Therefore, in training girls for these unspecialized occupations, the school is aiming at the objectives appropriate for the large majority of the girls. For specialized vocations outside of the home into which women go, except for the clerical, not much is being done.

There is just one group of specialized occupations for which the high schools have set aside a considerable portion of the program, and which they are seriously attempting to develop, namely, the clerical and commercial occupations. In one of the high schools studied, 26 per cent of the daily classes were in commercial subjects. In four of the high schools more than 20 per cent of the classes were devoted to this work. The average of the highest dozen schools is about 19 per cent. When one looks to the entire range of vocational objectives desirable for a diversified population and also at other types of abilities to be developed outside of vocations, it seems pretty clear that in many high schools a disproportionately large amount of effort is being made in this field of commercial technique.

Just how well balanced the usual vocational program may be cannot be known until we have agreed as to the occupational

objectives. It seems clear, however, that the vocational program is aiming in the main at manual and clerical technique; and that it is not aiming at abilities, attitudes, valuations, etc., of social type. Our most complex and difficult economic or occupational problems are not those of technique but rather those of social adjustment and control. These are our major civic problems as well. It seems that we should develop wide social vision relative to the entire economic or occupational world and a full understanding of the various social problems and their varied ramifications. It seems that there should be a greatly extended program of economics, economic history, economic geography, and a study of the civic problems of economic control. And yet, as we look at our tables, in the field of economics, there is a median of only four classes in every thousand. The subject is taught in only about half of the high schools. In only eight of the high schools does it embrace as much as 1 per cent of the daily classes. In the one giving most attention to the subject there are only 2.2 classes per hundred. Economic geography is given in only about one-third of the high schools. In these the average number of classes per hundred is only about one per day. Economic history is presented in fewer than a quarter of the high schools. In those in which it is found there is an average of about one class per hundred devoted to this subject. An outstanding exception is that of the North High School of Minneapolis in which there are four classes per hundred studying industrial history. It is an example greatly in need of wide imitation.

THE EFFORT MADE TO ATTAIN CIVIC OBJECTIVES

One's vocational abilities relate to a specialized and therefore relatively restricted field. One's civic activities relate to the entire field of civic and social adjustment and control. One's abilities, therefore, in the field of citizenship are to be developed in relation to the wide and infinitely complex fields of social phenomena. A mere glance over the problems confronting our citizenship as revealed in current discussions of press and forum reveals beyond a doubt that our greatest educational problems relate to the development of civic judgment, civic habits, knowledge,

attitudes, sense of responsibility, etc. And what is more, it is clear that our problems are those of the third decade of the twentieth century. While present problems and conditions have grown out of previous ones, still many of the factors are relatively new and require solution on the basis of social, psychological, and biological *principles* rather than on the basis of historical precedent. Doubtless we need much history, both ancient and modern, for developing appreciations, attitudes, etc., and for laying broad foundations for an understanding of the present. Still, our major task is fitting men and women for the duties that are involved in current conditions.

For the purposes of this study as well as for the guidance of practical education we need a clear, particularized statement of *the abilities* of the good citizen which should be aimed at in his training. This is the first necessity—the prerequisite to every later step. Before we can ever fit a citizen for performing his proper functions, he must know what these functions are, and what civic abilities he must possess in order that he may perform them. And yet, obvious as this is, our profession has not yet made any concerted effort to develop such a set of particularized objectives. We aim at citizenship in vague, general ways; we do not aim at specific abilities. This being the situation, it is not possible for anybody with any degree of certainty to evaluate the effectiveness of the present “social studies.” We can, however, present some of the facts relative to current practice.

Table III shows the situation in the fifty-one high schools analyzed. The median of the entire group shows that almost 11 per cent of the classes daily are in social studies of one kind or another. Most of these, however, deal with conditions and problems of the past; and about half of them with the past of foreign lands. Looking to the median, only about two classes in each hundred are dealing with current social problems of today. This is about one-tenth of the amount of time given to English; less than one-seventh of the time to algebra and geometry; one-third of the time to Latin. One might say that we are giving three times as much effort to the making of Romans as to the making of Americans. The median shows that economics, eco-

nomic geography, and economic history are practically nonexistent. The relatively minute attention to these social studies of current conditions, problems, and duties appears to indicate that high schools in general do not yet consciously and seriously aim at fitting citizens for the performance of definite and actual civic functions. There are, however, notable exceptions. The North High School in Minneapolis has nine classes daily per hundred in the social subjects of civics, economics, industrial history, and economic geography. In Springfield, Illinois, there are eight classes per hundred; in Springfield, Missouri, six; in Lincoln, Nebraska, and the Yeatman High School, St. Louis, about five and a half; and almost as many in Chicago, Joliet, Erie,

TABLE III
NUMBER OF CLASSES PER 100 IN CITIZENSHIP STUDIES

	Highest	Ninety Percentile	Q ₃	M	Q ₁	Ten Percentile	Lowest
All social studies.....	19.4	14.3	12.7	10.7	8.7	7.8	6.9
All history.....	19.4	11.6	10.3	8.1	6.6	5.4	3.5
Ancient and European history.....	13.1	8.4	7.3	5.2	4.0	2.9	1.8
United States history....	6.3	3.9	3.0	2.4	1.8	1.0	.7
Civics.....	5.8	3.2	2.4	1.5	.8	.0	.0
Economics.....	2.2	1.2	.6	.4	.0	.0	.0
Economic geography....	2.6	1.5	.6	.0	.0	.0	.0
Economic history.....	4.0	1.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0

and Dayton. These head our list of fifty-one. If these are typical of progressive schools in general, we may conclude that in the more progressive 10 per cent of high schools there is an average of about six or seven classes per hundred in the more modern types of social studies. This is doing very well.

The table shows very great diversity of practice; and therefore great diversity of professional ideas as to procedure; and probably as to aims. Classes in history range from three and a half to nineteen and a half per hundred. Ancient and European history ranges from less than 2 per cent up to more than 13 per cent; United States history from two-thirds of 1 per cent to more than 6 per cent; civics from 0 up to almost 6 per cent; economics from below 0 up to 2.2 per cent; economic geography from below 0 up

to 2.6 per cent; economic history from very much below 0 up to 4 per cent.¹

So long as we aim at citizenship in vague, general ways, this diversity must persist; and there can be no possible basis of judgment as to which type of procedure is correct.

Very frequently indeed it is said that we must go to the practices of the practical men in order to find out what to do. Table III presents a composite photograph of the practices. All sorts of things are being done. Present practices may guide us into doing anything, according to the ones we choose to follow. Practice is therefore no guide. There must be something over and beyond practice to guide it into and along proper channels, in terms of which we can evaluate varying practices.

There can be no solution but the assemblage of concrete verifiable evidence relative to the civic abilities needed on the part of individuals who make up the general population. When we have such scientifically determined objectives of citizenship, we can evaluate current courses of study. At present this is impossible. In this field, certainly, our profession yet dwells for the most part in the realm of guess and chance and whim. Not even the technique of scientific educational investigation in this field has been developed, much less made operative.

THE EFFORT MADE TO ATTAIN HEALTH OBJECTIVES

The statistical results of medical inspection, of the Life Extension Institute, of the military draft, etc., have been before the profession now for a number of years. We are relatively awakened to the surprisingly large quantity of physical invalidity in our population. We are coming to realize the seriousness of the situation not only for the individual but also for efficiency in vocations, in social adjustment and control, and in the promotion of the general welfare in all its aspects. As a matter of fact, all human welfare and all efficiency, personal, vocational, and

¹ It must be observed that in these cases the measure of zero is not usually accurate. In the lower ranges it clearly means a negative quantity which cannot be measured. A negative quantity here means that a school not only does not have the subject, but that it is much below the point of being ready to introduce or even to consider the introduction of the subject.

otherwise, require the secure foundation of high physical vitality. We do not need longer to argue these things; and yet conditions are as shown in Table IV.

The only thing that seems to be taken seriously in this field on the part of the majority of schools is the so-called physical training—the gymnastics, athletics, and swimming. All except eight of the schools have physical training as a portion of the regular daily program. The variation in emphasis, however, is very great, ranging from a zero median for the lowest 20 per cent of the schools up to 7 per cent of the daily classes in the upper 20 per cent of the schools; and as high as $13\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in two schools which stand at the head of the list. It is obvious that this work is handled in large classes and at relatively infrequent intervals in

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF CLASSES PER 100 ENGAGED IN HEALTH TRAINING

	Highest	Ninety Percentile	Q ₃	M	Q ₁	Ten Percentile	Lowest
All health training.....	15.5	8.8	5.8	4.5	3.0	1.3	0.0
Physical training.....	13.6	7.2	5.5	3.9	2.9	.0	.0
Physiology and hygiene (combined).....	4.1	1.9	1.2	.4	.0	.0	.0
Physiology (alone).....	4.1	1.6	.7	.1	.0	.0	.0
Hygiene (alone).....	2.8	.7	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0

some schools, and in small classes meeting relatively frequently in other schools. In those having the largest number of daily classes in such activities, probably sufficient emphasis is given to the matter, though there is no present means of knowing what is a proper emphasis. All practices—and all judgments—are but guesses.

This physical training has relatively little relation to a large number of health problems which are in pressing need of educational attention. It concerns itself very little with matters of food, ventilation, sleep, mental states, micro-organisms, physical cleanliness, elimination of wastes, temperature control, postures most of the day, the daily program of work and rest, prevention of accidents, care of eyes, teeth, nose, ears, throat, etc. In these fields individuals need a large body of information, diverse powers

of judgment, correct health habits, right attitudes of mind toward both facts and practical procedures, etc. These objectives demand a wide health-training program in addition to the program of muscular exercise. It seems, however, that in the majority of high schools this program is almost wholly unrecognized except on the informational side, and very little recognized even on the informational side. Courses bearing the titles of hygiene or sanitation are found in only eight schools out of fifty-one; in those there were somewhat less than 1 per cent of the classes. Classes in physiology, almost always classified with the department of science rather than health training, are, in considerable measure at least, dealing with science matters involved in the physical health situation. Classes in physiology are found in just half of the institutions and range from one class per thousand up to forty-one classes per thousand. When we note that the zeros below the median refer to different degrees of approach to the beginning of this work, it is clear the diversity of practice is very great indeed. For the sake of fairness we have combined all courses labeled hygiene and all courses labeled physiology; and when thus combined, such courses are found in only twenty-seven of the fifty-one institutions, the median being four classes per thousand, or practically zero. Except for the program of muscular exercises, the effort in this field is tragically inadequate.

The degree of inadequacy of the training is not realized by the profession because we have not particularized the health-training objectives. Before we can decide how much time and what proportion of emphasis is to be given to these various matters, it is indispensable that we decide professionally as to the particular abilities, habits, valuations, etc., which must be possessed by individuals. Until this is done, administrative officials may guess in these various diverse ways; and the diversity is proof that they are only guessing. Administration is not yet upon the basis of known facts and needs.

EFFORT MADE TO TRAIN FOR WORTHY USE OF LEISURE

It is much more difficult to decide which of the high-school studies are intended to train for leisure occupations. Obviously

music is for this purpose. Drawing and design were classified in the vocational group because of the increasing degree in which they relate to constructive activities, especially those of girls. In considerable measure, however, the drawing is for art appreciation and sometimes even art activities of the leisure type. A third matter to be classified in this field is literature. It is, however, impossible from these schedules of classes to segregate the training in literature from that in English expression. In so far as the physical training involves athletics, outdoor sports and games, dancing, swimming, etc., clearly it consists of physical activities of the play type, and is in some measure training for adult leisure occupations.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF CLASSES PER 100 IN SUBJECTS THAT ARE IN PART TRAINING FOR
LEISURE ACTIVITIES

	Highest	Ninety Percentile	Q ₃	M	Q ₁	Ten Percentile	Lowest
English.....	27.7	22.7	21.4	19.8	18.1	16.9	14.2
Physical training.....	13.6	7.2	5.5	3.9	2.9	.0	.0
Drawing and design.....	6.3	4.4	3.6	2.9	1.3	.0	.0
Music.....	7.6	2.9	2.4	1.8	.8	.0	.0

Table V shows the relative number of classes in the fields that are in part at least regarded as training for leisure occupations. Here again we note the usual diversities. Music is neglected in the program of some schools. It is given at least reasonably large attention in occasional schools. The median emphasis appears to be considerably less than its actual worth to that portion of the population which goes through high school. Art training is equally diversified. English, half or more of which is literature, ranges from 14 per cent of the classes up to almost exactly twice that amount.

Doubtless a sufficient proportion of the time is given to English literature. It is even possible that there is too much teaching. This is not to say that there should be less training in English literature as leisure occupation. There probably should be more, if anything, than that which is usually obtained by graduates of

our high schools. In so many cases they seem not actually to have acquired leisure reading habits of desirable type. It is doubtful whether this leisure occupation is to be developed except through a plan of training which is mainly not teaching but rather a leisure occupation, and therefore consumes less teaching time.

As to the training in literature, however, as well as to the rest of the training in this field, no one can have any secure judgment as to what ought to be until we have decided professionally the kinds of activities which should make up a worthy use of leisure time and a proper balance in the utilization of these activities. Naturally the program of different individuals must vary with their natures. This is to say, however, that they should vary upon the basis of considerations which can be objectively determined, not upon the mere basis of guess and whim and chance.

This composite photograph of the situation does not show us what to do, for the simple reason that we cannot know which of the varied types of practice is the best. The figures have value only in helping us to a realization of the need of a better definition of the goals of effort. They show the futility of trying to use current practice as a basis of finding out what to do.

There is another series of high-school activities of which the objectives are confused and vague; so much so that purposes are rarely considered in their actual organization and administration. We here refer to several of the more traditional subjects: algebra, geometry, Latin, French, Spanish, ancient and European history, and science of the usual pure or unapplied type. Quite obviously, the ancient history relates itself much more closely to literature and general reading as leisure occupation than it does to social studies intended for citizenship. The French is probably usually a leisure occupation or a means to the leisure occupation of reading French literature. This is probably the only justification for the Latin or Spanish in the case of most children. Algebra and geometry are delightful studies of the intellectual play type during high-school days; and for most pupils they do not look forward to practical activities after school days.

Except as these subjects are justified vaguely on civic or vocational grounds, the more frequent justification in the minds of

most teachers and administrators appears to be intellectual discipline. The "general discipline" objective, however, is not found in the list recommended by the national commission. There probably is a certain general mental efficiency just as fully as there is a certain general physical efficiency. Could we have a satisfactory statement of the nature of general mental efficiency, then it would probably be found that these traditional subjects are of large value in attaining it. It must be observed, however, that there is on the one hand the *development* of general mental efficiency, and on the other hand its *maintenance* throughout life. In large measure it is to be developed through intellectual activities of the play type; and in equally large measure it is to be maintained throughout life by means of intellectual activities of the

TABLE VI
NUMBER OF CLASSES PER 100 IN DISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS

	Highest	Ninety Percentile	Q ₃	M	Q ₁	Ten Percentile	Lowest
Mathematics.....	23.2	18.6	16.3	13.1	11.2	10.3	8.5
Science.....	18.3	13.2	11.7	9.7	7.8	6.5	5.1
History.....	19.4	11.6	10.3	8.1	6.6	5.4	3.5
Latin.....	14.4	9.2	7.6	6.1	4.4	3.6	2.6
French.....	9.7	5.8	4.7	3.7	2.9	2.2	1.7
Spanish.....	6.4	5.6	4.4	2.9	1.7	1.3	.0

play type. It is probable that we shall have to classify these general disciplinary subjects along with or at least in close proximity to the subjects and activities which are clearly and consciously of leisure type.

The diversities in the number of classes in these subjects are shown in Table VI.

It cannot be supposed that there is any actual diversity in the need of disciplinary subjects that corresponds to the diversity of emphasis in different high schools. The mathematics in one school receives three times as much emphasis as in another school. In science the range is three and a half times the lowest; in history and Latin more than five times; in French six times; and in Spanish the highest is seven times the lowest.

When one looks not at the extremes, however, but at the medians of the upper 20 per cent as compared with the medians of

the lower 20 per cent of the schools, it is to be noted that there is a wide range in the degree of emphasis. In certain fields of specialized training we may expect considerable legitimate differences among high schools; but in the field of general intellectual training such diversity of need is highly improbable. It is to be explained as we have explained the diversity in the other instances: our profession has not determined the objectives to be aimed at in the use of these more traditional subjects with any degree of definiteness; we are therefore not yet in position to make decision relative to proper amounts of time and effort to give to the several subjects. Here again it is not actual scientifically verifiable goals of training which are dictating the degrees of emphasis; but rather, as before, it is guess and predilection and the compromise of powerful academic interests.

Doubtless some of these subjects receive more attention than they deserve and others less than they deserve. Actual practice, however, because of its diversity gives us no clue as to what ought to be; and at present there is neither individual nor official body that can speak with any authority by way of pointing out which of the actual practices is best. They can only present their guesses. The thing is yet impossible because the bases of judgment have not yet been scientifically established. These things can, however, be determined when our profession is willing to set about it. Our purpose here is to present evidence in the variety of practices which indicate that we do not professionally know our own minds; that current practice does not show us what to do since it does not reveal which type of practice is the best; and that the problem is not to be solved except through a particularization of the abilities which are to be developed by education.

Following precedent is valuable for "playing safe," but not good for developing efficiency in work. It is the accepted and respectable mode of evading the careful and laborious study of actual needs. But the latter is for us the road to science. Some day, let us hope, obedience to the dictates of science will be the surest and the socially sanctioned mode of playing safe.

ATTENDANCE PROCEDURE

H. V. CHURCH

J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois

A pupil new to the school is required on presenting himself at the office to fill out the first three lines of the attendance card below:

42											
Name		John Doe									
Age 15 Yrs. 4 Mo.		Parents' Name Myron Doe									
Parents' Address		3149 Home Ave. Adviser Mr. Vernon									
	Sub	Rm	X/26	X/27	X/28	X/29	X/30	X/1	X/2	X/3	
3	Sp.	213	Sp	Sp	Sp	Sp					
1	E	209	1	1	1	1	P6	8 ²⁹	Sp		
2	V.	131	2	2	2	2					
3	Ph.		3	3	3	3					
4	Sc.	307	4	4	4	4					
5	Lunch										
6	Sc.	204	6	6	6	6					
7	St.	131	7	7	7	7					
8	St.	209	8	8	8	8					
9			P.	L.	nl						
10											

The clerk then ushers John to a faculty member who gives him Form A of the Chicago Group Intelligence Test. The score is recorded on the upper left corner of the attendance card (42). He is then assigned to his proper classes and given an admittance slip. The admittance slip gives the date of John's entrance, his name, the time, names, and places of the classes he is to attend. The slip is explained, as it should be, as follows: You go to Spelling at 8:20 A.M. in Room 213; to English in Room 209 the first period; to Vocations in Room 131 the second period; to Physical Training in the boys' gymnasium or the pool the third period, alternating daily (today you go to the pool); to General Science in Room 307 the fourth period; to lunch the fifth period;

to Latin in Room 204 the sixth period; to Room 131 for study the seventh period; to Room 209 for study the eighth period. If you always have your lessons and behave sensibly you may go home at 2:50 P.M., the end of the eighth period. Your adviser (educational and vocational) is Mr. Vernon, your teacher of English.

To each of John's instructors is issued an admittance slip which shows to the teacher who receives it that John Doe should report to him at certain periods. The attendance card is then filled out (see columns 2 and 3) and given to the clerk, who makes out a scholarship record card and a daily attendance blank. These latter two are cards, $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ inches. The clerk then places the attendance card in a filing tray with the other cards of its kind.

If John Doe should be absent on October 26, entries are made on his card as shown in the fourth vertical column from the left. The first teacher to arrive in the office with an absence to record for John Doe searches out his card in the file, heads the fourth column with the name of the day (X/26), and (if he is the teacher of English) places a figure "1" in the fourth column in the square opposite the horizontal column "1." This shows that John Doe was absent from the English class in Room 209 the first period. This teacher does not return the John Doe card to its alphabetical place in the file but places it in the front of the tray, so that later during the day, as John Doe's teachers come to the office to report his absence from their classes, they find his card among those of the other absentees. By the end of the ninth period the other teachers of John Doe have come to the office and posted his absence from their classes, and Column 4 shows that John Doe was absent from all his daily appointments.

At the end of the day the clerk telephones the home notifying someone there of John's absence. When this is done, a "P" is placed at the foot of the column. If the clerk is not able to deliver a telephone message, a letter in a plain envelope is sent to the home stating that John is absent from high school on that date, and a letter "1" is placed at the foot of the column. The second consecutive day of his absence a second letter is sent (see foot of Column 5), and on the third day (see Column 6) a registered letter is sent to the home in an envelope with a return printed on it.

The envelope is also rubber-stamped, "Deliver to addressee only," and "Return receipt demanded." These rubber-stamp directions comply with the post-office rules and insure, first, that the letter shall be delivered to the parent and to no one else, and secondly, that the office has in the return receipt card the evidence that the notice did reach the parent. The receipt card is kept on file for future reference when needed.

If John is absent all day on October 29, and his Latin teacher alone fails to note his absence, or fails to record it, his card will read as in Column 7. To this Latin teacher is sent a notice which calls his attention to his oversight in reporting John's absence, and a symbol is placed in the Latin teacher's square (see Column 7). The teacher returns this notice with some comment, e.g., "Yes, recorded."

If John Doe should absent himself on November 30 from his English class, his card would read as in Column 8. The teacher, making this entry some time during the school day of November 30, withdraws this card from its proper place in the file and places it in the front of the tray. It comes thus into the hands of the clerk at the close of the day, who recognizes it as a "cut," and delivers it to the faculty member who interviews such delinquents. If the pupil can give satisfactory explanation, the square is marked "k," which means "O.K."; if he was in slight error the square is marked "w," and a warning is given; if he was guilty of a cold-blooded "cut," he is given the regulation penalty of six hours for the first offense and the square reads as completed in Column 8. (P stands for penalty and 6 for the number of hours.) He is presented with a penalty voucher. This voucher states in writing John's misdemeanor and gives him the proper directions for serving his sentence. The stub of the penalty voucher, which is a copy of the paper John receives, is sent to John's adviser, who posts the misconduct on John's penalty card.

If John should be so unfortunate as to be sent out of class, his teacher records this enforced absence as if it were a "cut," and the office takes care of the irregularity as above.

If John should come to school a few minutes tardy on December 1, he might do one of three things. First, he might go at once

to his spelling class. There his spelling teacher would record the time of his arrival and post it on his attendance card (see Column 9). The plus sign indicates that he entered the class at the time indicated. His card will be withdrawn from the file by the teacher who makes the entry and will be left in the front of the tray where it will receive surveillance with the cards with other irregularities on them. Second, the lad might go directly to the office and check in, where the clerk would at once enter the time of his entrance on his attendance card and tell him that as a cure for lateness he must report for three consecutive mornings before eight o'clock; if he should fail in keeping this appointment on any one of the three mornings, he starts the series of three over again; on a second failure, he starts over again and receives a penalty as if he had voluntarily absented himself from a class. If he becomes incorrigible, he is sent to fetch one of his parents. Third, he might loiter somewhere out of sight until the spelling class is over and go to his next class. In that event the spelling teacher reports him as absent on the attendance report just as if he were not in school that day at all (see Column 10) and also posts his absence on his attendance card.

If John at any time should fall ill during the day's session, any teacher to whom he might apply has authority to excuse him from school. This teacher would check him out as shown in Column 11. This shows that teacher F. H. excused him at 1:05 P.M. The entry in Column 12 shows that John was excused at 2 P.M. on December 3 by a written request from home.

Every morning the summons bell rings at 8:16, and the pupils go at once to their spelling classes; all are required to take spelling. At the beginning of the class the teachers of spelling make out a report of the attendance, showing date, number present, number absent, and names of pupils absent. These attendance reports are fastened in a clip just outside the spelling-room doors, and are at once collected by a clerk. This officer makes a cumulative report which goes to the principal. Thus, in a very few minutes after the session begins, the principal knows the number present and the number absent, and the names of the absentees are in the hands of the clerk.

On any day, as soon as all the irregularities entered on the attendance cards of the previous day are taken care of, the clerk posts them on a daily attendance blank. This blank, a card $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ inches, bears John's name, the date of his birth, the name and address of his parents, the home telephone number, the date of John's entrance into high school, as well as a transcript of his absences and excused dismissals.

The advantages of an attendance card like the one described are, first, it has a great deal of information on it; second, one can find a pupil who has any irregularity reported without having to hunt up another program card in a different file; third, all of the pupil's previous irregularities are at one time before the investigator; fourth, copying from a teacher's class book and absentee report, and thence to an office attendance book or record card is obviated, with the result that less time is taken and fewer errors appear.

THE PORTION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM THAT MAY ADVANTAGEOUSLY BE GIVEN TO VOCATIONAL WORK

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In the development of the more recent practical ideas of education, no other phase of thought has appealed more strongly to the popular mind than vocational education. As the popularity of this work has grown and as project methods have been developed in connection with the practical side, there has been a growing tendency to increase the proportion of time devoted to the vocational program with corresponding decrease of the general or academic studies. In most high schools offering manual training, domestic science, or commercial courses, two-year curricula were first organized, providing two units of credit out of sixteen for graduation. Special agricultural courses were introduced into high schools calling for approximately one-fourth of the pupils' time. Many of the other special courses were also extended to four units. As home and school projects in agriculture came to receive larger attention, the tendency to extend the time devoted to this side of the work became very common. In order to have the projects properly cared for throughout the season for growing crops, the work was extended not only through the school year but also through the summer season. This led to an extension of the requirement for graduation in this curriculum to eighteen units instead of sixteen, counting the projects as a distinct part of the work for which definite credit should be given.

With the coming of the Smith-Hughes program, the Federal Board for Vocational Education has gone still farther by asking that approximately 50 per cent of the pupils' time be devoted to the special agricultural work. Furthermore, along the other vocational lines, in the effort to strengthen the efficiency of the practical

side and to appeal more strongly to the vocational interests of high-school pupils, there has been a tendency to increase the time to 50 per cent or even more in some schools. The chief argument in favor of this plan, aside from the great practical value of the vocational work itself, has been that by this means many pupils could be kept in school who otherwise would drop out in the early years.

We shall agree at once in giving large importance to vocational work in the high school, and agree most heartily that every possible effort should be made to keep all pupils in the high school as long as possible. Indeed, most of us would eagerly urge with most leading educators, as well as other thoughtful men, that a high-school education ought rapidly to come to be regarded as the minimum attainment of every American boy and girl.

Important as these considerations are, however, for an extension of time devoted to vocational work, their force cannot be accepted as justification for such extensions, without careful analysis, not only of the values of vocational training but also of the larger values and demands of general education. Of course, there is a sense in which all subjects of study may be regarded as having vocational value. Moreover, all so-called vocational studies may have, if well taught, large value in connection with more general aims. However, it will help our common thinking if we use the term "vocational" in the rather strict sense defined by the Federal Board as "those studies and activities whose controlling purpose is to fit for definite and useful employment."

With this common basis of thought, let us look into some of the arguments usually advanced in favor of large extensions of time in the high school for the vocational work. The first and most untenable argument is that it makes little difference what studies a pupil takes provided he does the work diligently and efficiently; therefore, pupils ought to be allowed to take just as much vocational work as they choose. It would appear as sensible to say that it makes no difference what one eats provided the food is well masticated, or to say that it makes no difference what crops a farmer raises if they be well cultivated. The best pedagogy of today looks upon education as an exposure of those influences,

situations, and fields of thought in which pupils may be led to react most favorably in meeting the practical problems of life. In the words of one writer, "Education is the provision of that school experience in which pupils are whole-heartedly active in acquiring the ideas and the skill needed in meeting the problems of their expanding life." In the light of this conception, materials of education and subjects of study become of paramount importance in relation to pupil development and to the demands of community life.

Again, it is often assumed that the entire cause of school mortality is the pupils' lack of interest in the usual academic or general studies of the high school. Furthermore, it is concluded that if enough vocational work is provided, this elimination may be entirely overcome. No doubt the vocational program, if well directed, does attract many pupils strongly and should be used, as far as consistent with other needs, for holding pupils as long as possible in the high school. But has it not been repeatedly shown that under moderately good teaching, science, English, history, and mathematics, especially if linked up with a reasonable amount of motor and concrete activity, can also be made interesting to most students? Is it not a fact that with all the low standards of qualifications of high-school teachers and with all the poor teaching which necessarily results from immature and inexperienced teachers, high-school attendance has grown with most phenomenal rapidity? Such growth has been due primarily not to the introduction of vocational training but to the growing faith of the American people in a comprehensive plan of education as the safeguard of democracy and as a preparation for efficient life. No doubt much dead subject-matter has been forced upon unwilling pupils. However, this problem is receiving more and more scientific study with the idea of eliminating subject-matter of least value and of organizing materials in the most practical form. The fact is that both vocational and academic studies can be made dead and uninteresting or may be made vital and practical. In either group of studies, the value depends very largely upon how far pupils are led to deal with motivated life-problems and situations and to what extent materials and methods are adapted to this end.

Finally, it is by no means certain that all elimination may be prevented by increasing the amount of time a pupil may devote to vocational activities. Of the many factors involved in pupils dropping out of school, one of the greatest is the strong pull of industry which wants the cheap labor of the boy and which is able to entice him through the lure of money and greater opportunities for social pleasure and urban excitement. In both city and rural regions, elimination is due in large measure to economic pressure which leads the parent to keep the boy and girl at home for their help at the earliest possible time. The present critical labor problem in the country strengthens this tendency. In so far as vocational opportunity in the school can help to overcome these tendencies, it should be made use of, but 50 per cent of school time to vocational subjects is too large a proportion even for so desirable a result.

Leaving now the arguments in favor of large increase of time for vocational work, there are many reasons which should be considered against too great extension of this kind. In the first place, there is danger of too early emphasis upon the selection of a life-work and of too large an amount of time spent in the acquiring of specific skills in occupational lines. Such selection should not be made until the pupil has had broad training in many fields to enable him to choose wisely the occupation for which he is best fitted. The high-school period should be a time for exploration of many fields of thought and of many practical lines of activity rather than a time for too intensive study in any one direction. All the pupils should have a chance to try themselves out with reference to many fields, not only in industry and manual arts, but also in activities which are practically related to the so-called academic studies. Large emphasis should be given to the common basis of intelligence and appreciation upon which must be built up any adequate training for citizenship in a democracy. There is great danger of too little attention to these common elements of democratic education.

Again, any program which tends to separate the pupils of the high school too early into classes or groups, in which occupational distinctions can be unduly emphasized, should be considered most

carefully before being adopted. Probably no American institution compares with the high school as an agency for fostering democracy. Here all classes come together, touching elbows on a common basis and participating in common ideals and common training. It is supremely important that this great value of a high-school training shall be maintained without loss, even though something of vocational efficiency may have to be sacrificed.

Besides, any lack in the highest vocational efficiency can far more easily be compensated for after leaving high school than can lack of adequate training in the common elements of education. It was the almost universal testimony of draft officials in the recent war that deficiency in general education was the most serious handicap of the drafted men; or, stating the point positively, the most valuable qualifications of high-school students and graduates consisted in their intelligence and ready command of any important situation rather than in special technical skills. The boy who goes into industry or business deficient in the fundamental elements of a high-school education is not likely ever to make up this deficiency. On the contrary, any lack of technical skill is quickly made up by brief training in the industry or business itself. What the farmer needs, for example, in becoming a large factor in the rural problems of today, is not only a good knowledge of the principles of agriculture and some skill in its practices, but even more a breadth of view and a large vision in the consideration of any practical problem. He needs an intelligent habit of thought which will enable him to grasp any question in all its relations. True, study of the distinctly vocational subjects may help give some of this training, but such training will be inadequate without much exposure to the great fundamental lines of human thought and activity represented mainly by the academic studies of the high-school curriculum.

The greatest demand of American life today is for more intelligent citizenship and for a better moral attitude with reference to all of the activities of social, civic, and community life. If we are to meet the problems of the future in government and politics, in harmony with the best traditions and the best ideals of American life, we must develop in the schools a more effective type of training

for citizenship. To do this, we must give larger attention to such teaching in connection with the high-school curriculum. That we have failed in a large degree in meeting this problem in the past is recognized by the best educational thought on every hand. The one great problem in the high school of the future is to find a remedy for this weakness.

Let us now look at the problem from the viewpoint of the fundamental values of secondary education. These values have been much discussed with perhaps little agreement in the past, but fortunately they have recently received somewhat authoritative expression in the report of the reorganization committee of the National Education Association on "Cardinal Principles in Education."¹ This report, after a most careful study of the modern needs of democratic education, presents seven specific objectives: training for health, training in command of fundamental processes, civic education, training in wholesome use of leisure, vocational training, training for worthy home membership, and ethical or moral training. Vocational training, here appearing as one of the seven great ends of secondary education, should certainly be considered as very important. However, there is little doubt that from the standpoint of social and civic welfare the other objectives are even more significant.

It seems noteworthy in this connection that in a study of education started recently by the Wisconsin Federation of Labor, the four purposes of education about which the whole study was organized gave no prominence to vocational education. The following ideas were included: "Things which make for happiness, good citizenship, the care of health, and the care of the home." Vocational education might perhaps be included in the first of these, but was evidently not prominent in the minds of those who formulated the objectives named. There is much evidence that these ideas reflect the general spirit of labor throughout the country.

In all educational discussions for some time past, health training and citizenship training have had leading attention. No doubt much can be done in both of these fields in connection with the

¹ *Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1918.* Washington: Department of the Interior.

general activities of the school and to some extent in connection with the usual high-school studies. However, a recent important committee report¹ before the National Association of Secondary School Principals has declared that such training in citizenship is entirely inadequate to meet the present need in American life. This committee demands that all other high-school subjects, even English if necessary, give way for a more adequate program of citizenship study. And further, the report demands that this work must be organized and carried on as a special study for all high-school pupils through every year of the curriculum. The report distinctly states that the work cannot be adequately done in connection with the history program.

We must have a very different type of teaching civics or civil government from that developed in the past. The new teaching of this subject must be dynamic rather than static; it must be functional rather than merely informational. For instance, the various governmental agencies such as state legislatures, the supreme courts of states and of the United States, the Congress of the United States, and the various boards and commissions of nation, state, and smaller political units, must be studied, not as so many abstractions, but as agencies in action, dealing with definite and current problems. These problems must be developed with the pupils in such a way that a personal relationship and responsibility may be felt and so that right moral attitudes and intelligent understanding may result. Pupils must be led to feel that governmental agencies such as Congress, a legislature, or a board of health are not mere abstractions far out of reach, but agencies for safeguarding their own individual interests as well as those of all the people. Each pupil should be given an opportunity to become acquainted with the members of governmental bodies as real people, some of whom are his own representatives, charged with his own interests. The study should help pupils to follow in an intelligent way the position taken by public officials on important issues, to know how these officials vote, and to know how to hold them responsible for their action. It should further train pupils to know how to

¹ "Report of the Committee on Social Studies in the High School," *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), 283-97.

gather evidence on both sides of important questions, to weigh such evidence in the light of right principles and right moral attitude, and, finally, to think out valid conclusions and evaluate the claims of candidates seeking the support and votes of the people. The study must do much more than this in developing that spirit of honesty, of fairness, and of regard for law which alone can bring about the best individual citizenship.

To accomplish these results there will be required a much larger place for citizenship in the high-school curriculum as well as changed methods of instruction. Especially needed is a longer period of contact on the part of the pupils with these practical problems so that habits and attitudes may become firmly fixed and may be led to function permanently outside of the school. It is also important that a liberal amount of this work should be given in the earlier years of the high school, especially since so large a number of pupils at the present time do not continue through the later years. If, then, we include both history and citizenship under the one name "social studies," four units of work ought to be the least that should be required in the four-year high-school course.

The importance of English in the high-school curriculum is recognized by all. Its value as a means for effective oral and written expression is fully accepted, and its relation to wholesome use of leisure is scarcely less important. Some appreciation of the literature of the language, of its dramatic factors, its artistic elements, and its human interest is of supreme importance in determining the choices of young people in their leisure reading, in the kind of entertainment they seek, and in the social activities they enjoy. Probably there is no phase of American life today in which there is greater need of raising standards than in this line.

For both the development of skill and good habits in the use of English, and for the study of the literary and artistic side, there is need of breaking away in large degree from old curriculums. More functional types of work must be developed in both fields. Much has already been accomplished on the composition side, but much less on the literature side. There is still large use of formal and stereotyped materials which not only do not lead to functional

appreciations, but which, in fact, often have exactly the opposite effect. Present curriculum offerings from the English and American classics, especially from the former, are largely traditional and poorly adapted to the interests of high-school pupils or to their outside reading habits. This is true both as to the character and variety of the material. There is need of a much wider variety of reading material and also of a much larger use of current literature as found in recent books and magazines of the best character. We do not wish to have the older books of established value wholly left out, but we do believe there ought to be a larger variety of other material provided and used. With these values in mind three units and probably four would be the least time that could be regarded as adequate for the English work. Many of the leading universities are requiring four years of English for admission and, what is more to the point, most of the leading educational thought on secondary education is in favor of this requirement.

Then the sciences must certainly have a large place, even though a great deal of criticism, much of it just, may be offered of the highly abstract way in which these subjects have often been treated. They have an especial value as a basis and background for most of the so-called vocational subjects which involve wide applications of scientific principles. True, some of the values of the sciences may be realized in connection with the vocational subjects themselves, but the principles and applications of science cannot be adequately mastered and understood in their broader relationships without treatment as distinct units outside the strictly vocational studies. Without this larger treatment intelligence in the vocational fields is likely to be narrow and confined to routine, rule-of-thumb mastery of problems and processes. Such knowledge should be linked up with a large comprehension and appreciation of the fundamental fields of scientific thought and achievement. A most important problem of educational thought at the present time is concerned with plans and methods for making the science program more effective.

The least provision that could be thought of as in any degree satisfying the demands of the four-year high school in science would be two units; strong arguments could be advanced for

three or even four units. Chemistry, one of the most interesting of sciences to our youth and one of the most practical in relation to industry, including agriculture, now has very small place in the high-school curriculum; at least this is true in Wisconsin. Likewise zoölogy and geology receive little or no attention. Geography, a most broadening subject in relation to almost every phase of economic life, has very scant if any attention in most high schools. Important problems of transportation, marketing, trade relations, commercial centers, and business methods which vitally concern every industry are almost wholly neglected.

The organization of a science curriculum has been the subject of much debate. There seems little doubt that the general science approach to science study is based on sound pedagogy. This should begin as early as seventh or eighth grade and be continued through the ninth year. This leaves the last three high-school years for a study of the fundamental sciences on a more differentiated plan. Biology can well be placed in the tenth year, and a year each may be given to chemistry and physics in the eleventh and twelfth years. If two years of science are required of all students in the four-year high school, one year should be devoted to the general science in the ninth year and a second year to one of the specialized sciences of the last three years. At the same time, opportunity should be offered for liberal elections outside of these two required years. This works out in the most ideal way under the junior-senior high-school plan. Here the general science may be carried through the junior high school years, leaving the more differentiated plan for the senior high school.

The claims of mathematics no doubt furnish much ground for debate. Probably some traditional subject-matter in this field could be omitted without serious loss. Much attention is being given to a comprehensive reorganization of the whole subject. Nevertheless, if we include the work of arithmetic, practical accounts, and bookkeeping with such other mathematics as may be found most worth while, it would seem unwise at present to cut down the time devoted to this field below two units at the very least. Finally, the art studies, such as drawing and music, are being more and more recognized as having large value in connection

with home relations and the problems of wholesome use of leisure. These studies ought to have at least some consideration for most high-school pupils.

Bringing together, then, the results of these considerations, we have as the irreducible minimum of time necessary in the four-year high school to devote to the general studies eleven or twelve out of the usual sixteen units. These should be distributed about as follows: social studies, four; English, four; science, three or four; mathematics, two; art studies, hygiene, sanitation, etc., one. Now if we extend the total number of units required for graduation from sixteen to eighteen in order to provide adequately for the practice side of the vocational work, we have approximately one-third of the whole time as the absolute maximum that ought to be given to distinctly vocational studies, with such slight variation as might seem wise in exceptional cases.

So far no consideration has been given to the demands of students who expect or who may decide to go on to higher institutions. This has not been brought into the main discussion since its importance is regarded as secondary to the main question, namely, What are the fundamental needs of high-school education from the standpoint of the pupil and in relation to the demands of modern life? Practically, however, university entrance is a question of some importance. At present the University of Wisconsin, which may be regarded as a typical higher institution, demands for entrance fifteen units of high-school credit, of which eleven must be in general or academic studies. These eleven units do not include reviews, arithmetic, or grammar. The high-school vocational course, therefore, which requires 50 per cent of the time for vocational studies, puts pupils who graduate from it under a handicap which tends decidedly toward closing the way to higher education. There is great question regarding the wisdom of placing such a handicap in the way of any high-school graduate. Certainly it should not be done unless it can be very clearly shown that more important considerations demand it. Furthermore, it is unfair to any student to lead him into such a course without full understanding that it does not admit him unconditioned to higher institutions. Indeed, the average American parent has

little toleration for any plan or any course in education which closes the way for his boy or girl to the highest attainment. This is true even though only the occasional student may care to demand the advanced opportunity. Many high-school pupils fail to know, even at the time of graduation, to say nothing of the beginning of their course, whether or not they may decide to go on to college.

In the conclusions here arrived at, there is no intention of laying down absolute standards which cannot be varied under any circumstances. No doubt there are high-school pupils who are so strongly motor-minded or who have such mental peculiarities that academic studies offer unusual difficulty while vocational work makes an especially strong appeal. High-school administration should be flexible enough to meet these cases; but the needs of the many should not be sacrificed to meet the needs of a few.

With these considerations in mind, the State Department of Education in Wisconsin has prescribed that the minimum number of academic units in any four-year high-school course must be at least twelve. Recognizing that variation from this minimum may sometimes be wise the Department has been ready to approve some courses with a larger percentage of vocational work. In these cases, however, it has insisted that the statement must be very definitely made in such a course that it cannot be expected to admit to higher institutions unless students make up the necessary twelve units.

A new program of studies for the four-year high school was issued by the Department at the beginning of the present school year. At the basis of this program is the fundamental thought that the high-school period should be a time of exposure to all the basic fields of human thought and achievement; that every pupil should be expected to study something of language, science, mathematics, history, civic life, the arts, and vocational problems. To this end there is a backbone of required studies for all pupils. At the same time, opportunity is offered for liberal elections and for special emphasis upon the field of each pupil's greatest interest.

In the arrangement of studies the larger needs of citizenship and the study of current social and economic problems were given first consideration. Such study is not only given a place in the

later years of the course, but is also required of all students in both the ninth and tenth years. By extending the work on a fractional unit plan through both years, while accomplishing but one unit of work, pupils are given opportunity for a longer period of contact with the current practical problems of government and civic life. General science is paired with citizenship on a similar plan, in such a way that each pupil completes at the end of each year a half-unit of each subject, while in the two years he finishes one full unit of each subject. The course also offers a half-year of study of "Current Social and Economic Problems" during the Junior or Senior years. In addition, two years of mathematics, two years of history, including modern and United States, four years of English and one additional year of science are required of all students. As stated above, at least twelve units of general or academic credits must be offered for graduation. Abundant opportunity is provided for vocational work; the fine arts, music and drawing, are especially emphasized; and, finally, as liberal elections as possible are urged along all lines.

In conclusion, we are not overlooking the great values of vocational education. We recognize its value, not only because of its importance as a training for greater efficiency and individual success in our economic and industrial life, but also because of the help it can give in a better functioning and a wider application of the general studies of the high-school curriculum. Vocational training should give a dignity to all useful labor. It should help to replace the drudgery of the workaday world by an intelligent grasp of the significance and meaning of all useful processes. We feel, however, that the movement has now become so generally accepted and has developed to such a point that there is great need of more careful analysis and new estimates of values, so that none of the essential claims of high-school education may be neglected in our enthusiasm for this comparatively new field of work. It is likewise important that vocational education itself may not only find its rightful place, but that it may avoid the disfavor which may come from overextension and overemphasis. Educational balance, always needed in connection with new movements, is especially needed now in the midst of large federal

appropriations for vocational work and under the influence of a strong tendency to set up separate administrative boards whose paramount responsibility is to develop vocational results.

We have purposely kept this discussion within the high school, not including part-time education or separate vocational schools. Perhaps here somewhat larger contentions may be made for vocational education. The part-time schools should, however, be regarded as only temporary expedients to provide for those pupils who must drop out of school before the completion of a high-school course. Such schools may be needed for a long time, but as we become more and more successful in leading the general public to regard a high-school education as the minimum for every American boy and girl, the less need will there be for the part-time special school and the less will become the attendance of these schools. In the meantime, while we give every possible opportunity to the boys and girls who drop out, let us safeguard the high school as the greatest agency for the fostering of democracy. Let us also see that its training shall be broad and well balanced in relation to the fundamental demands and the richest ideals of present life. Finally, let every true friend of education see to it that the largest needs of boys and girls shall not be exploited by any narrow or one-sided conception of education, but that all may be assured the largest and fullest opportunity which can be provided by the best educational thought.

MOTIVES UTILIZED IN SUCCESSFUL PUBLICITY CAMPAIGNS FOR BETTER SCHOOL SUPPORT¹

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Every serious effort to relieve the acute financial condition to which many city public school systems have been reduced in the last six years must take into account the appeals made in the recent publicity campaigns for better school support. The very existence of these school systems, certainly their continuance at anything like their pre-war effectiveness, is imperiled. Various relief measures have been proposed, including, of course, different forms of state aid. But the revenues for state aid are usually derived largely from property in cities. Often a city receives less in state aid for its schools than it contributes to the state-aid fund. For such a city, state aid simply means a new way of taxing itself locally for schools and from the city standpoint, not a particularly effective way either. When in addition we recall that in the country at large about 85 per cent of school revenues comes from local sources, it is evident that in most cities relief must for some time to come be sought mainly from increases in local school revenues. State laws often require such increases to be approved by the local popular vote. To cope with this situation, certain city school executives, school boards, and groups of teachers have secured better school support through publicity campaigns. At the same time, many groups in similar situations have failed in such campaigns. There is consequently need for careful investigation of the technique of successful publicity campaigns for better school support with a view to assisting all school executives who must undertake such campaigns.

The need for making the successful technique available for others is all the more urgent since we have strong evidence from

¹ Paper read before Section Q, American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 30, 1920.

Evenden,¹ Burgess,² and Clark³ that in most instances the amount of money spent in a community for public schools depends mainly upon how well the cause of the schools is presented to the public by the school authorities.

For some years the writer has been studying the details of successful technique in presenting school facts to the public. In 1919, a questionnaire on successful publicity campaigns for better school support was sent to many city superintendents throughout the United States. It brought definite publicity material and opinions of the superintendents from seventy cities, representing all sizes of cities and sections of the country where successful campaigns had been carried on. Since then, fragmentary materials, news notes, and personal interviews have extended the available list of cities to nearly one hundred. In addition considerable knowledge was acquired of campaigns that failed. Partial results of this study have been published elsewhere.⁴ It has seemed advisable to study still more closely the motives which have been utilized in the campaigns. The appeal has sometimes failed in a given community when the cause was most worthy, simply because the attempt has been made to utilize motives which, however skilfully handled, are not apt to arouse people to the desired action.

So many complicating features appear in any movement as involved as a publicity campaign that it is extremely hard to be sure whether or not success in a given case was due primarily to any one thing or to any one group of things. For instance, a reader of the campaign literature for any city feels that he ought to have as well copies of the newspapers of that city during the period. But if he sends for them, he finds that he is unable to tell which items in them were prepared by the campaign managers

¹ E. S. Evenden, *Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedules* (N.E.A. Commission Series, No. 6), pp. 131-32.

² W. Randolph Burgess, *Trends of School Costs*, p. 133.

³ Earle Clark, "The Growth of Cities and Their Indebtedness for Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, XVIII (January, 1918), 381.

⁴ Carter Alexander and W. W. Theisen, "Publicity Campaigns for Better School Support," *Journal of Educational Research*, II (June, 1920), 457-64. Same title but different material, *American School Board Journal*, LXI (July, 1920), 31, 119; (August, 1920), 35-36; (September, 1920), 32, 99. "Campaigns for Teachers' Salaries," *Educational Review*, LX (October, 1920), 190-204.

themselves and which represent the opinions of the editors or of the opposition. Furthermore, he knows from the political field that sometimes local issues are carried by popular vote when practically all the press is against them. The campaign literature necessarily had to be obtained from those who conducted the work. Their views as to the main causes of success are hardly unbiased. It has also been very hard to secure accounts of some campaigns. One of the most successful men in such work had literally to be "strong armed" into giving an account of his methods. Finally, it is out of the question to use the "control" method so common in laboratory investigations. In such investigations frequently an experiment is checked by running a parallel experiment in which certain features are purposely varied and absolutely controlled. This second or "control" experiment thus often enables the experimenter to determine the value and meaning of certain factors in the first experiment about which he otherwise would have been very uncertain. In publicity campaigns for better school support, however, too much is at stake in each locality to permit of running "control" campaigns for comparison.

In spite of the difficulties, much has been done in studying the printed materials, in reading accounts of the methods employed, in getting the written and oral views of the men engaged, and in investigating publicity methods in closely allied fields. These fields include Liberty Loan, Y.M.C.A., advertising, and salesmanship work. Considerable time has also been given to seeking the real causes of failure in unsuccessful campaigns, of which unfortunately there are many. From such work the writer brings to this discussion the conclusions which such analysis seems to support.

In this discussion "motive" is used simply to mean the one appeal or group of appeals which induced voters, through their own mental processes, to support the proposed increase in local school revenues sought by the publicity campaign. Many motives in this sense were, of course, utilized in the campaigns. But for clearness and brevity, this discussion will be confined to (1) altruistic motives, with special reference to pity; (2) personal motives, with particular attention to fear; (3) motives aroused by confidence in the school administration; (4) motives aroused by a skilful presentation of school costs.

1. Great reliance is placed upon utilizing altruistic motives in the campaigns. Dr. Theisen and the writer, after a careful study of all the available evidence, formulated these three rules of procedure for school executives contemplating such campaigns:

a) Build all on the proposition that the people of the community wish to do the right thing by the children and that they will make any necessary sacrifices to this end if needs are clearly and convincingly shown.

b) Make the good of the children the paramount issue, in particular subordinating to it all consideration of cost.

c) Let the school authorities appear to be speaking for the whole people on school matters and not in the interests of any special class.

Although at the time the foregoing rules were formulated altruistic motives were not particularly in mind, it will be noted that all three of these rules are based primarily upon such motives.

Why are these altruistic motives so much utilized in publicity campaigns when Hollingworth shows that in selling goods they are very much less effective than more personal appeals? The writer is unable to give a definite answer to this at present. But it seems probable that from custom and long habit the conventional thing is to think of the public school in a rather altruistic way. It is the one big institution in which most or all of the people in any given community have a common interest. The fact that it is so easy in the campaigns to enlist the support of the numerous bodies organized for social betterment, such as the civic clubs, Rotary, Kiwanis, and women's clubs, and organizations of clergymen, is clear evidence in favor of this view. Reports indicate that it is also easy to enlist the support of labor unions. These organizations are usually very careful about indorsing anything that is not clearly for their own good, but they have had a long history of favoring education because it is clearly for the good of all. The antagonism to salary campaigns, based mainly upon the need of the teachers themselves and not upon the better teaching that the children need, is a plain indication that most people expect altruistic appeals for support of public schools, and that they expect teachers to be reasonably moved by the same motives to which these teachers appeal.

It would be an interesting study to find out whether women, who will henceforth vote more often than men in such campaigns, are more moved by altruistic appeals than are men. No convincing evidence upon this point has been found. But it is probably true for school campaigns as for advertising in general that, as reported by Hollingworth,¹ women are more susceptible to appeals to civic pride than men. It is probably reasonable also to expect that they are more moved by pity than are men.

The employment of the altruistic motive of pity in the campaigns is a complicated and at times even a dangerous proceeding. Theoretically, it is as easy to arouse in women and big-hearted men pity for children who are suffering under terrible physical school conditions as for poor children in the city at large or in war-ridden Europe. But in actual practice this feeling of pity will be accompanied by other feelings that may be even more powerful. Thus, there may be shame that the city should tolerate such a situation. Or skilful comparison may produce indignation that some children should be subjected to such conditions while others are happy and comfortable in modern buildings. This indignation will show itself in a demand for fair play or an equal opportunity for all the children of the city. It will then be an open question whether pity, shame, or the sense of fair play was the most effective motive aroused by the campaign.

In securing more money for teachers, pity for them as a motive is of doubtful value. In campaigns for public support of teachers' pensions there have been many attempts to give harrowing accounts of the personal sufferings of superannuated teachers who have given their lives to the public service with nothing saved on which to retire. But anyone who thinks carefully over such a situation is inclined to lose confidence in the effectiveness of a school system which will permit innocent and helpless children to be subjected to the influence of such teachers. If pity is to be utilized, the attention should be focused upon the deprivations of the children so that pity will be felt for them. Much better results will be secured by this method, for then pensions will be seen to be absolutely necessary for the removal of the old and

¹ H. L. Hollingworth, *Advertising and Selling*, p. 295.

incompetent teachers in order that the children may have better teaching, and in order that, through a pension system, a superior type of young teacher will be attracted to the school work.

In campaigns for increased teachers' salaries, much effort has been wasted in depicting the personal hardships of teachers under current salaries, in the effort to arouse pity for them as individuals. This procedure is ineffective because any intelligent person knows that practically no teachers, except the very old or incapacitated ones, need stay in teaching when so much more can be earned with much less effort in various other occupations. Here again, if anyone is to be pitied, it is the children subjected to poor teaching. Furthermore, the effort to arouse pity for teachers has other troublesome results. It tends to make the public lose confidence in the work of the schools. A far better procedure is to show that the present teaching staff is of superior quality but cannot be maintained at that level except by higher salaries. This was done at Omaha by showing the ratings of the high-school teachers on intelligence tests as compared with the ratings of other groups of capable workers. Again, publicity of the type which depicts a well-dressed and attractive dancing instructor saying to a shabby and pitifully dressed teacher, "Why don't you educate your toes instead of your head?" is in some respects a body-blow at efforts to secure better teachers. Such publicity causes many capable girls who had seriously contemplated teaching to change their minds. When they see that society rewards the teacher with so little prestige and remuneration, they think that to prepare for teaching is to plan to place one's self in a class which receives the ostentatious pity and condescending behavior of successful people.

2. Probably few writers of the materials used in school campaigns recall exactly this statement of Hollingworth: "Even in our reasoning it is the appeal to *our own* point of view, *our own* dominant instincts, conceptions, values, habits and needs that constitutes the most effective argument."¹ But they operate in accord with it. Special pains are taken to appeal to personal motives by arguments or presentations directed toward various groups with the object of starting them to thinking how the

¹ H. L. Hollingworth, *op. cit.*, p. 244.

increased expenditures may benefit them personally. Efforts are made to show business men that from the standpoint of expenditures the public school system is one of the really big businesses of the community. The attention of bankers and merchants is attracted by demonstrating that money paid out for schools is practically all spent in the community. In erecting new buildings, the support of labor unions is sought by showing the proportion of expenditures, always a large one, that will go to labor in the city. The best campaign organizations aim to have speakers at every different kind of meeting in the city so as to reach all classes with special appeals. Much personal campaigning for the same purpose is used. Property owners are addressed with citations to show that good schools materially increase the value of property. Often when a new school is to be erected, the property owners of that locality are given special citations to show the increase in property values to be expected in that locality because of erecting the building. Taxpayers are shown exactly what the increase in school tax will mean to them, and the amount is deliberately translated into such figures as a cent a day or week on the thousand dollars of assessed valuation in order that each may be impressed with the smallness of his personal tax increase. In addition, taxpayers are often exhorted not to be misled by rumors of the increased school taxes, but to "figure your own tax increase. Your last tax receipt will enable you to tell just how much more you will have to pay," and so on.

Similar personal work is done with teachers, parents, and pupils. In salary campaigns the aid of teachers is solicited by presentations of what the salary increases will mean to the teaching staff. Parents are induced to think of how much better teaching their own children will receive. If the increase is for high-school teachers only, parents of children in high school are told that their children will henceforth receive as good teaching relatively as children in the grades under better-paid teachers have hitherto enjoyed. If the salary increase is to be general, the publicity material sets forth that the children of all will be benefited by better teaching. If a junior high school building is to be erected, the parents of children about to attend are shown how much better

it will make the work, while the parents of children in the grades are told that their children will receive much better work in the space vacated by those pupils who move into the new building. Material is even adapted for school children. The idea is to impress the children with the belief that the increased expenditures will provide them with much better schooling. They are sometimes utilized in preparing and circulating publicity material. The idea here is that by the time the children have worked up all the material in favor of the increased expenditures their parents will be "sold" on the proposition.

The personal motive of fear may at first thought seem a very unworthy motive to utilize under any circumstances. But rightly used, it seems to produce results that can hardly be secured otherwise, certainly not without far greater effort. It is utilized in securing new buildings by showing the fire hazards in the old ones, or by arousing parents through references to moral dangers connected with foul, dark toilets, or to health perils growing out of inadequate heating systems, lack of ventilation, or poor lighting. In cities where there is keen competition with rival cities in business, or where the economic outlook is somewhat uncertain, fear is a powerful factor in the situation. The leading business men and their organizations will be at once attracted by any appeal for schools which utilize fear of the city's future. If they can be convinced that the economic solidarity of the city can be secured only through good schools which are necessary for turning out efficient girls and boys, for attracting and retaining factory workers who have the education of their children at heart, and for combating bolshevism and social unrest, they will see that the money for such schools is voted. Up to this point fear may be utilized for publicity campaigns to produce action by an individual just as it is in any other situation where action by him is desired. But there is another somewhat peculiar part to be played by fear in such campaigns.

When a proposal for increased school expenditures is to be decided by popular vote, only the votes cast are of significance. They may represent only a fraction of the people eligible to vote. Of course, it is always desirable to have a decisive majority of the

community acquiesce in the proposal for better school support. But for practical purposes the publicity campaign has only to secure the requisite number of votes of the people actually voting on the increased expenditure. Under these conditions, if any opponents of the increase, who have no valid reason for such antagonism, can be so intimidated that they do not vote at all, the cause has really gained votes. There are instances where school-board members who were against the increase have been made to cease opposition through fear of public opinion which has been aroused to a decided majority in favor of the increase. If prominent citizens early come out publicly in large numbers favoring the increase, most politicians, "tightwads," and minor objectors will be afraid to oppose actively.

The most successful campaigns seem to use a skilful combination of both altruistic and personal appeals. In this way practically every voter will be attracted and convinced by some appeal. Probably as in much commercial selling, neither the salesman nor anyone else can tell for certain just which appeal was most effective. In any event this combination has a precedent in the Liberty Loan campaigns. While the necessity of buying bonds to perform one's duty as a patriot was always uppermost, the appeals were accompanied by elaborate statements as to how good a business proposition for each purchaser it was thought to be.

3. Much material used in the campaigns evidently is constructed with a view to retaining the confidence of the public. The best proof of this is probably the widespread attitude of leaving the issue to the people to decide calmly for themselves, the school authorities of course appearing to be confident that when all the facts are known the decision will be in their favor. Very little is done in painting school deficiencies in darkest colors and then stopping. If any such painting is done, the method of adjusting the whole matter is at once suggested, often with some such slogan as "Vote for the bond issue and stop this." A skilful way of presenting deficiencies and at the same time retaining confidences in the administration is to show weak places in sharp contrast to superior facilities in the same field, all within the school system. Thus the citizen will then have his sense of a

demand for fair play aroused to give all children in the system a square deal on the particular matter.

If blame is to be attached to anyone, the best procedure seems to make it clear to the voters that unsatisfactory conditions are in the last analysis due to them, for they provide the money, the *sine qua non* of all successful school work. In Wisconsin we are at present putting this before the people all over the state whenever the Ayres report is mentioned, showing that the state is not spending as much money on its schools as some other states. In all such work it is essential to use practical psychology. For example, carelessness in presenting facts about the poor showing of a school system may result in such resentment among voters toward those who made up the showing that any recommendations made by them will be ignored simply because vouched for by them. The aim should be to divert the energy aroused by the showing into other than channels of resentment. This energy can be just as powerful for constructive work if properly directed.

The showing of unsatisfactory school conditions must be made as impersonal as possible. For this reason school surveys by outside experts and results of standard tests are often serviceable. The blame attached to the public for not providing sufficient money for schools can be also relieved of personal elements by taking for granted that citizens simply did not realize the true state of affairs and that they will be willing to remedy school finances as soon as they do realize it. One of the finest examples of this kind of procedure known to the writer occurred in a self-survey conducted by a county superintendent in a county in a southern state. The survey was absolutely merciless in its presentations of facts and pictures of conditions. But the agreement was made that the printed report was not to be circulated outside the county. The citizens then had confidence in the superintendent's desire to help the schools rather than to be mainly concerned about enhancing his own reputation through circulating the survey. Moreover, undesirable results from resentment may sometimes be avoided by speaking of unsatisfactory conditions in general, such as the shortage of teachers, the necessity of employing many incompetent teachers, without specific references, leaving

citizens to make the application in their own city. Or it can be assumed that the present standard is as good as it can be or even satisfactory, but that it is proved conclusively that this standard cannot be maintained without more money. The importance of retaining the confidence of the people is clearly shown by the fact that in many communities campaigns fail, but later efforts of the same sort succeed. The reason for this is that citizens at first probably thought the money was not really needed, but later concluded that it was.

It is advisable to take all pains necessary to show that the schools are economically managed, that the money is not asked selfishly for the benefit of the teachers or executives, and that there is no graft involved in erecting buildings or purchasing sites. The third essential is, of course, obvious. The first is obvious where the cost is low. But where the cost is high, effort must be made to show that the higher cost is due to more extended school work or to newer and more elaborate equipment not given in other school systems. In some communities where the cost is high, there is a distinct note of "The best is none too good for this community." In the case of increases for teachers, special effort is made to show that these are asked primarily for the benefit of the children and that it is a mere incident that the teachers now in service will receive higher salaries.

4. In addition to the foregoing, the campaigns very naturally give much attention to a careful presentation of school costs to impress the voters with the idea that the schools are economically administered. For this purpose two distinct approaches are used. Some of the campaigns start with the proposal to secure a certain increase in school revenues or to issue bonds for a given sum. The campaign literature begins with a statement that the school board after a careful study of the situation, or after having a survey made by outside experts, has concluded that this particular increase is needed. The remainder of the work is devoted to showing the reasons for this exact amount and to prove that it is not extravagant, referring always to this amount in attractive slogans.

Other campaigns seem to operate as does the best salesmanship. The work starts with a discussion of school needs, a proposal of a

way to meet these needs, and a skilful arousing of a desire for certain improved school conditions. After the desire seems strong enough, the matter of cost is taken up and a decision is reached as to just how much money is needed. This seems the better plan from the standpoint of interesting the public and also for securing the most money. There is no real proof for this conclusion, but it seems reasonable.

Beyond this, three other phases of cost presentation occur in most campaigns. First, there is a deliberate attempt to minimize the amount to be raised. Many devices are used for this, but mainly the stock Y.M.C.A. or book-salesman device of showing how little the cost per thousand dollars of assessed valuation will be per day or month. In some places, the amount asked for schools is shown to be very small when the amounts granted to other parts of the city expenditures are considered, or when the increase in cost of living since 1914 is taken into account.

Second, the value of an education to a boy or girl is played up to impress high-school students or their parents. In this connection, there is some trouble just now in stating the value of education in terms of money. Some years ago the increased earning power of those who had an education, as compared with those who did not, was with many parents an impressive presentation. In fact, Professor Ellis, of the University of Texas, issued an extensive bulletin on *The Money Value of an Education* which was published by the United States Bureau of Education. But during the war period this sort of presentation was of less value since unskilled labor so often earned much more than educated people could command in any work for which their education was a prerequisite. In all probability, as the present financial stringency tightens, this kind of presentation will again be serviceable.

Third, special pains are taken to refute misrepresentations on school costs. This may necessitate a special committee as in St. Louis, where a guerilla warfare against the school-bond issue was kept up by a so-called "taxpayer's protective league." Or the very soundness of the school presentation may silence such opposition. Thus Superintendent Spaulding, in one of his Newton reports, took up the charge that the schools were increasing their

expenditures too rapidly. When through, he had proved that the increase in cost was due to the large increase in the number of school children, the per capita cost for schools having actually decreased. Anyone objecting to such an increase after knowing this fact would thereby label himself an enemy of the public school. All such refutations, if successful, can count on the support of the many sensible people who will be aroused to vote for schools because of disgust over false charges. Experience indicates that many will be aroused to vote for schools in this way who otherwise would have neglected to vote at all. So certain is the psychological reaction in such a case that managers of school campaigns have sometimes even egged on the opposition to make charges of extravagance in order that they might themselves bring forth the proofs of an economical school administration.

This article represents work in only a very small portion of the field of better school support. But this work, incomplete as it is, has demonstrated clearly that there are in the United States very few investigators who are seriously attacking the problem of how to secure better support for schools that must either have the increased revenue soon or be stunted past recovery. In all phases of school support, there are few investigators at work as compared with those working in measurements of subject-matter, methods of learning, schemes for rating teachers, formulation of principles for curriculum-making, and so on. Much needs to be done in all these other fields, of course. But if we cannot divert and utilize from these other fields some of the energy and ability now given to exploring them, men of a later time in looking back upon the present period may with justice say of present-day educational investigators, "They fiddled while Rome burned." Surely the educational investigators of the country will, as good firemen, begin in time and work hard enough on this matter of school support to snatch the public schools from the burning.

DORMITORIES IN CONNECTION WITH PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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This brief statement of facts concerning dormitories in connection with public secondary schools is submitted in response to the invitation of Principal D. Lange, of St. Paul, Minnesota, for statistics and opinions on the subject, in his interesting paragraphs in the *School Review* of September, 1920.¹

Dormitories are quite common in connection with secondary schools of agriculture affiliated with land-grant colleges. In some states these secondary schools are administered by the college officials and housed in the college buildings. In others they have separate organizations and are located in different parts of the state. Dormitories are commonly found also in connection with special agricultural high schools established wholly or in part by state aid. Examples of such schools are the congressional-district agricultural high schools of Alabama and Georgia and the county high schools of Mississippi.

The following states report the existence of dormitories with high schools other than secondary schools of agriculture affiliated with land-grant colleges and state-aided agricultural schools: California, Colorado, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, North Carolina, Montana, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming. Nevada is empowered by its statutes to provide for rental, purchase, and erection of dormitories and dining-halls for county high-school students. In West Virginia the provision for dormitories in connection with county and district high schools is optional with school boards. In the other states cited, the legal authority is not specific; it is implied, however, by a broad interpretation of the law. For example, such a phrase as "to erect the necessary buildings" may be construed to include dormitories.

¹ XXVIII, 488-89.

It is quite probable that the legislatures in several of the western states will make definite provisions this winter for dormitories with certain types of high schools.

The administration of dormitories in connection with the high-school plant is a recent venture in states west of the Mississippi River. The dormitory idea in the West is a result of the campaign to attract rural students to the high schools. Many pupils live at distances so great that it is necessary for them to be away from home during the week in order to attend high school.

Montana has more high-school dormitories than any state west of the Mississippi; the state department reports twenty-three in existence at the present time. The following facts concerning a few county and district high schools that the writer visited last October in Montana and other western states show the situation.

Several years ago the Commercial Club at Lewistown, Montana, built a modern brick building to accommodate the rural girls at the Fergus County High School. This past year a unit was added, making the total cost of the building \$73,000. It is rented to the county school board at 7 per cent interest on the investment and 5 per cent depreciation. Each year the depreciation is deducted from the principal. One hundred and eight girls are accommodated in this building. It contains a large dining-hall which serves both boys and girls; board is furnished at cost. The management of the dormitory is in charge of a matron, assisted in her duties by a helper, a cook, and dormitory girls who serve the meals and wash dishes. This matron chaperones the dormitory boys and girls in their social activities. A large private home is rented for a boys' dormitory in which two men of the high-school faculty live and assume supervision.

In the Stanford School district, also in Fergus County, Montana, which has an area of over 300 square miles, the school board has rented an old rooming-house to take care of high-school children who live out on the ranches. The boys live on the upper floor and the girls on the lower. The matron's duties are varied; she is cook, steward, purveyor, and general adviser.

The Powell County High School at Deer Lodge, Montana, has purchased for \$16,000 a three-story residence adjoining the

high school. This building, the former home of a mining magnate, is a prize; the woodwork is mahogany, and the walls of the dining-room are hung with tapestry and support a Tiffany window. A house near the high-school building is rented for a boys' dormitory.

The Teton County High School at Chateau, Montana, has remodeled the old school building for a girls' dormitory. The Jefferson County High School at Boulder, Montana, has erected a new building used as a dormitory. A gymnasium, in the center of the building, separates the boys' and the girls' sides of the dormitory. The Columbus, Montana, school district has a large rural territory. An annex to the old school building was transferred into a girls' dormitory when the new building was completed. The matron supervises the girls, who perform most of the household duties.

At Carbon, Utah, the county school board has purchased the buildings of a defunct Methodist academy and transformed them into dormitories for the children of the mining camps. Students perform most of the labor.

A few years ago, at Imperial, Nebraska, a member of the county school board was impressed with the fact that the reason many rural pupils in Chase County were not attending the high school was because there was no place for them to live when they came to Imperial. This official himself built and equipped a dormitory for the use of rural students, charging rates for board and room designed merely to cover operating expenses.

In Mississippi dormitories are provided by law in connection with fifty-one county agricultural high schools because it is thought that agriculture and domestic science can best be studied by living on the school premises. A farm is operated in connection with each school. The state department rates them as among the best high schools of the state. A study of the rural and urban population in the Mississippi schools visited indicates that they are advantageously serving the children of rural districts. The same is true of the congressional-district agricultural high schools visited in Georgia. Parents often prefer to send their children to such schools rather than to town high schools that are nearer, but in which the children would be without supervision.

Dormitory high schools in Virginia are for the most part a survival of the congressional-district high schools which were established some twelve or thirteen years ago. Never very successful, these schools ceased to function as congressional-district high schools when the state accepted the grants of the Smith-Hughes Act. The present unit of control for them is either the county or the magisterial district. The dormitories are, however, performing a much-needed service.

The Farm Life Schools of North Carolina must by law establish dormitories. The object in providing dormitories is much the same as that in the county and congressional-district high schools in the states named above, namely, the training and preparation of boys and girls of the country for farm life and home-making are better facilitated when they can spend all their time at school. As a matter of fact, the state department of North Carolina is authority for the statement that these schools have never functioned as *real* farm-life schools. However, in the schools visited the dormitories did fill a real need by providing homes for country children who are compelled to leave home in order to secure a high-school education.

The dormitory high school is frequently a survival of the old-time private academy. Many academies in the South have been taken over entirely by the public school. Maine and Maryland are examples of states in which academies with dormitories receive partial public support. Delhi, New York, is the only instance reported in a northern state in which an academy with a dormitory has been changed into a public high school.

Mr. Lange suggests that dormitories in connection with city high schools would care for city children without homes and for rural pupils who must by necessity live in town in order to secure high-school advantages.

The principal of one county high school in Montana said to the writer: "I could fill these dormitories with children residing right here in town. Parents making the request have offered to pay more than the amount asked in order to have their children live at the dormitories." The reasons given for this request were: "Unable to provide a home"; "Want to go to California for the

winter"; and "Can't manage the children at home." For the first reason there apparently are legitimate grounds. Mr. Lange has referred to instances in which the mother is dead and the father unable to provide a home. Just how far dormitories ought to be erected for reformatory purposes is debatable. The Carbon County High School in Utah protects itself against the admission of students whose personal history is questionable by investigating each applicant's case before a decision is made relative to dormitory residence. The other extreme, found in one of the county agricultural high schools in Mississippi, welcomes incorrigibles on the theory that it is worth while to "save the lost sheep."

Approximately every state has a law to the effect that eligibles, living in districts which do not maintain high schools, may attend schools located in outside districts; and that the tuition for such attendance shall be paid by the district of the pupils' residence. Small towns frequently make earnest effort to secure the attendance of these rural pupils. Dodgers are often sent out by school boards showing the advantages of the town school. Personal visits are sometimes made upon the parents of prospective pupils by superintendents and principals. Commercial clubs lend their support. When children thus solicited enter the town high schools their living problem is solved by "baching it," living with relatives or in private homes or in boarding houses. In most cases they are left to shift for themselves so far as moral responsibility is concerned. Anyone who has had experience with such situations can relate instances similar to those cited by Mr. Lange. A dormitory, under the right management, would be welcomed by many parents; it would increase the attendance of rural pupils in many high schools.

It must not be understood from the last paragraph that towns are urged to build and equip dormitories to care for rural pupils. The statement merely covers conditions as they exist. The country should be urged to provide its own high schools through consolidation and transportation. Where geographical conditions prevent consolidation, the dormitory seems the best way to provide high-school facilities for those who must leave their homes in order to secure secondary-school training.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

The content of American history.—The teaching of American history has hitherto been somewhat provincial both in our public schools and in our institutions of higher learning. Courses given under the title of American history have been confined almost exclusively to the colonial history of the thirteen colonies and the history of the United States. One who pauses to think will at once realize that this is not American history, but only a portion of it; that such a view is provincial; and that, in view of the growing importance of the other states on the American continents, it may become vicious. Why should students in the United States be left in ignorance regarding the Canadians and the Hispanic Americans and taught, by implication at least, that the people of the United States are the only Americans in the Western Hemisphere?

The presumptuousness in this mode of procedure may be avoided by precision in terminology, by calling what is being taught now simply what it is, United States history. Those who are jealous of the time allotted to the study of the history of our own nation may choose to adopt this plan; but those who for the past decade or so have devoted themselves to a consideration of American history in its broader aspects are in favor of retaining the old terminology and making the content of the courses offered under the title American history fulfil all the implications of that title. The authors of a recent volume¹ may be numbered among this group.

The authors have not undertaken in their present text, however, to present a complete survey of the history of America. Having concluded, probably, that it would be too much to expect the educators in general and the historians in particular to accept the whole of their viewpoint immediately, they have attempted only "to bring into one account the story of European expansion in North America down to 1783." They have treated this portion of American history in a very comprehensive and accurate manner. In fact, comprehensiveness is the keynote of the work. This phase of the matter can possibly best be described in the words of the authors themselves:

The activities of the Dutch and the Swedes on the Atlantic mainland are given a large setting in both Europe and the New World. The account of French expan-

¹ HERBERT EUGENE BOLTON and THOMAS MAITLAND MARSHALL, *The Colonization of North America, 1492-1783*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xvi+609 \$4.25.

sion in North America has been extended beyond the conventional presentation to embrace the West Indies, the founding of Louisiana, and the advance of the French pioneers across the Mississippi and up its tributaries, and up the Saskatchewan to the Rocky Mountains. The story of English expansion embraces not only the thirteen colonies which revolted, but also the Bermudas, the West Indies, Hudson Bay, Canada, and the Floridas. The treatment of the new British possessions between 1763 and 1783 aims to present in one view the story of the expansion of the whole English frontier, from Florida to Hudson Bay.

The Spanish colonies of North America, in particular, have been accorded a more adequate treatment than is usual in textbooks. To writers of United States history the Spaniards have appeared to be mere explorers. Students of American history in a larger sense, however, know that Spain transplanted Spanish civilization and founded vast and populous colonies, represented today by some twenty republics and many millions of people. The notion, so widely current, in this country, that Spain "failed" as a colonizer, arises from a faulty method. In treating Spain's part in the New World it has been customary, after recounting the discovery of America, to proceed at once to territory now within the United States—Florida, New Mexico, Texas—forgetting that these regions were to Spain only northern outposts, and omitting the wonderful story of Spanish achievement farther south [pp. v-vi].

The book is distinctly a college text, but the style is simple, direct, and clear, and the subject-matter is illustrated by some fifty maps, so that it will be found very useful to high-school students for supplementary reading, while to high-school teachers it should have added value. To all teachers of American history, whether in the public schools or in the colleges and universities, it will bring a viewpoint which is new and stimulating, a viewpoint which they cannot afford longer to neglect if they are to keep abreast of the times.

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A working view of supervised study.—The key to current improvements in the technique of instruction is to be found primarily in the widespread reaction against the time-wasting, interest-killing practices of the older lesson-hearing type of recitation. This reaction is felt most clearly in the greatly increased emphasis upon those newer forms of classroom exercise, the socialized recitation and the supervised-study period. The importance of these latter is no longer questioned, but it must be admitted that the actual details of their proper application to classroom procedure in the several branches are as yet in large measure unformulated. Certainly there are not lacking in our schools instructors who, with the best of intentions yet lacking opportunities for the requisite special courses or for the observation of expert practice in this direction, have only the vaguest of notions as to how these principles may be profitably adapted to the conduct of their own particular classes. The responsibility for this condition must unquestionably rest in part upon those writers on supervision and special method whose books contain a maximum of theoretical precept with a minimum of concrete example.

No such charge could be laid, however, against the latest addition to the Hall-Quest series on supervised instruction. This volume¹ by Miss Laura McGregor of Rochester is designed to do for the teaching of English what Miss Simpson has undertaken in the case of history, and a more immediately practical set of definite suggestions of the sort required it would be difficult to find. While bearing the title *Supervised Study in English*, this heading is taken in a sense sufficiently broad to include also discussions of the assignment, review, and such other teaching processes as must accompany instruction of the type in question. The volume is in fact largely a compendium of detailed accounts of actual classroom exercises organized along the general lines of supervised-study technique. Theoretical discussion is thus conspicuous by its absence, and generalizations are limited for the most part to suggestions interspersed among the reports of particular recitations.

After a brief exposition of the principle of the threefold assignment and the suggested form of lesson-plan sheet, the writer plunges directly into the account of a series of lessons in oral English. These are followed by similar chapters treating of procedure in the case of literature, composition, and grammar respectively. These instances of expert teaching not only develop by illustration a clear conception of the underlying technique, but are so chosen as to introduce also a wide variety of ingenious devices of the sort always welcome to the teacher in any line. Possibly the chapter on literature is more than usually strong here. Many readers will be tempted to try out whole sets of these lesson plans taken over almost without change.

Chapter vii is devoted to forms of drill upon the five special skills to be developed in English. These are, by the author's analysis, skill in the mechanical processes of reading, automatic use of correct speech forms, skill in the choice of words, ability to use the dictionary, and a real sentence sense in composition. The suggestions for the cultivation of these abilities are eminently practical and clearly put. A final chapter on the place of projects in English teaching, while remarking the objections to too free employment of the prolonged and artificial enterprises sometimes included under this caption, nevertheless outlines a variety of plans which may prove acceptable.

While this book as written has reference specifically to English of junior high school grade, an examination of the lesson plans outlined can scarcely fail to be profitable to anyone concerned with the teaching of English under departmental organization and with periods of sufficient length to make such procedure practicable.

Later volumes of this series will be awaited with interest.

An introduction to the teaching process.—The instructor in an introductory course in education or the writer of a textbook for such a course must constantly face the necessity of deciding between the conflicting claims of direct

¹ A. LAURA MCGREGOR, *Supervised Study in English for Junior High School Grades*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xii+220.

applied methodology and those more general considerations underlying the teaching process often termed the "principles of education." Emphasis upon the former will make his work popular with the many who, confronted with the necessities of their task, are eager for specific devices which may be adopted outright. On the other hand, it is highly important that every student looking forward to the profession should be given at the outset some view of the fundamental principles together with a unified survey, however brief, of the essential problems in this field. A little volume¹ from the hand of the director of practice teaching at Illinois State Normal University approaches the subject quite definitely from this latter angle. While evidently intending this to serve as an introduction to general method in the hands of prospective grade teachers, the author has elected to set forth concisely the consensus of good opinion on the broader issues involved rather than to enumerate prematurely helps and devices or rule-of-thumb hints for the detailed application of these principles.

The book opens with a discussion of the distinguishing characteristics of the teaching act, followed by a good summary chapter on the "objectives of education." Chapter iii, which traces the considerations, both historical and professional, which have determined the present content of our curricula, is well calculated to rid the mind of the novice of the notion that there is anything final or sacred about the present arrangement. A fourth chapter on the proper logical organization of subject-matter for a given recitation develops by contrasting examples a point the practical importance of which in teaching cannot be too much emphasized. Ensuing chapters deal as effectively as their compass permits with the all-important topics of individual difference, habit formation, the general character of the learning process, interest as a factor in school work, and the relative values of various stimuli at the teacher's disposal. Less conventional are the chapter on means of developing a sense of responsibility and that upon the value and use of comparison, which must be counted among the more original in the book. Certain suggestions in the latter are particularly stimulating, perhaps the more so as the "striking similarity of function" more than once cited as existing between Longfellow's "Excelsior" and Jordan's "Life of the Salmon" is assuredly not one to have impressed the mere lay reader. Following these, the author devotes two chapters to particularizing the bearings of these general principles as applying in the teaching of spelling and the three R's. The book concludes with a discussion of standards for the measurement of results in teaching and an admirable concise review of the principal tests and scales at present available for this purpose.

The treatment throughout is of a simplicity and clarity, and with an aptness of illustration, quite in keeping with the destined use of this book by beginning students. As a rule, there is a commendable avoidance of

¹ EDWIN ARTHUR TURNER, *The Essentials of Good Teaching*. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1920. Pp. xiii + 271. ✓

"Pedaguese," though when the author refers repeatedly without explanation to "the negatively-reacting pupil" and defines teaching as "the conscious direction of stimuli to the end that the teacher's aim is realized in terms of desired pupil controls," he is perhaps bordering upon that unlovely tongue. One wonders also whether "educationist" is due to become a popular term.

On the whole, the book is the well-assimilated product of a thorough acquaintance with this subject and a long experience of teaching and observation in this field. Probably no better general evaluation could be found than the words of the introduction by President Coffman, "For the teacher who desires a safe and sane philosophy . . . that has stood the test of experience, this book will prove invaluable. For one who needs a solid base upon which to build a substantial superstructure of schoolroom experience, this book will serve as a safe guide."

Determining objectives in education.—How scientifically to determine the specific objectives in the various subjects commonly taught in elementary and high schools is a problem of much concern to present-day educators. It is felt by a goodly number that if a few controlling aims or objectives in each field of instruction could be once definitely determined, the questions involved in the selection of materials and methods will be settled forthwith. The sociological basis of the determination of these objectives is set forth in a recent book¹ by a well-known educational sociologist.

Besides some six or eight chapters on such general subjects as educational sociology, readjustments of schools, and of curricula, the high school of tomorrow, the essentials of liberal education, and the formation of moral character, the book discusses the objectives of mathematics, physics, the fine and graphic arts, history as a social-science study, social education, vocational education, and the study of education.

According to his statement in the Preface, Professor Snedden has undertaken in each chapter to do at least three things, viz., "to search for certain sources in the social sciences or in experience from which to derive standards of examination for the 'faith objectives' now controlling in the departments dealt with; to criticize those faiths which have probably come to have injurious characteristics or superstitions; and to propose, tentatively, certain new objectives for examination."

As a whole, the book is destructive rather than constructive. The author seems to feel that most of what is now done in educating young people is out of tune with present-day conditions. There is much of telling how to do in the book, but little evidence that the writer has ever taken many of his own suggestions seriously. His proposed objectives would certainly have more weight if they appeared as something more than mere opinion. One wonders after reading such a book whether the educational sociologist is inclined to

¹ DAVID SNEDDEN, *Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1920. Pp. 322.

assume that his function is merely to tell how to do a job rather than to contribute the results of tasks performed as the educational psychologist has done. Perhaps the explanation lies in the fact that educational sociology is too young to have much of scientific attainment to offer. As time progresses, doubtless something other than suggestion and destructive criticism may be presented.

Principles of education.—The consuming interest of the school public at the present time in specific facts and details of procedure in connection with school work has resulted in a body of literature of the field which either devotes itself wholly to the task of describing conditions and practices, or ventures only so much discussion of principles and ideals as may be barricaded by living examples of hopes realized and conceptions sustained. There is, on the other hand, a growing feeling that even the beginning teacher or the student in training needs a "point of view" quite as much as a thorough knowledge of standards and processes. In recognition of this need for "the broad views and the ideals which will keep our work free from monotony and staleness" an English writer¹ undertakes to present the chief features and principles of a number of the more important school problems without the weight of numerous details.

Following a brief introductory chapter explaining the condition of partial organization and multiple control of English schools, the author considers first the general conception of elementary and secondary education as it finds expression in the several types of schools of each level. A chapter is then devoted to a discussion of "Buildings, Furniture, and Equipment" and the part these play in the educative process. Teachers are urged to give careful attention to the changed physical conditions under which instruction is carried on and to apply "common sense and scientific health principles to the school routine."

One-third of the volume is given to a consideration of the curriculum. Commenting on the numerous efforts which have been made to formulate a principle for guidance in determining the subject-matter of instruction, the author reviews the common conceptions which emphasize each its special type of development of the individual—the intellectual, the social, the religious, etc.—asserting that neither in itself is sufficient. For example, the contentions of those who strongly emphasize the social aim are answered as follows:

There is, moreover, in each individual both a social and a personal self—a side that he may and does expose to public view, and a side which he reserves for himself and a few others. This deeper and more intimate self would reveal tastes and sympathies, aspirations and ideals, ideas upon life and death—in fact a side of the human being which concerns the individual far more than the community—and these, especially in an Englishman, are regarded as private and sacred. While these personal elements would almost certainly never have made their quiet way into being without

¹ W. G. SLEIGHT, *The Organisation and Curricula of Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. Pp. 264. \$2.00.

the influence of society, they nevertheless remain the individual's peculiar possession, and any view of education is inadequate which, like that under consideration, tends to underrate or ignore their importance. The aim of social efficiency requires widening by the inclusion of the idea of individual or personal sufficiency [p. 65].

There is no suggestion that such analysis as has been attempted of the needs of the individual to be educated is futile. On the contrary, each such conception makes its specific contribution to the very breadth of view for which the author pleads. His own conception is summarized thus:

Each of the theories which has been considered presents a partial view of the aims of the school. Each, when held by persons of broad and liberal ideas, escapes most of the criticism levelled against it; and each, held by normal ordinary people, tends to lay an unwarrantable stress on some one aspect. Each contains a great deal of truth. Together they give a fairly complete view of what education should seek to do. If, therefore, we are to obtain any guidance in deciding upon curricula from a conception of educational aims, it will be necessary to take these aims as a whole into consideration [p. 68].

The problem of time-tables is dealt with, a careful adaptation of the schedule to the needs of the school concerned being urged. One chapter is given to a discussion of a group of problems—supervision, promotions, individual differences, home work, etc., and one chapter to "School Government." Finally, the provisions of the Education Act of 1918 are discussed, the changes which this act introduces being briefly described. While the book is written entirely from the point of view of the English setting of the problems considered, the general principles of purpose and procedure which are expounded are as applicable to the same problems of schools otherwise organized and controlled. It may be read with profit by both the teacher and the administrator.

Introduction to economics.—One of the important tasks of educational institutions is that of transmitting to the young our heritage of economic relationships. Just as other types of accumulated race experience are systematically presented to rising generations, so must this be also.

A new book¹ by Lyon and Marshall is intended to give help in this connection. "This book has been prepared for those who are beginners in the study of economics, or who are making their first serious study of the business of social living. It is an attempt to describe the way in which we live and work with one another in modern life in our effort to gratify our wants."

The material of the book has been used in mimeographed form in various institutions. At the University of Chicago it has been used with supplementary material in a course for Freshmen. An effort is made to depict social structures in terms of what they do. Separate sections on value and distribution which appear in many texts do not appear here, since this is intended merely for introductory courses.

¹ LEVERETT S. LYON and LEON C. MARSHALL, *Our Economic Organisation*. Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. x+503.

The book is divided into twenty-five studies, which in turn may be divided into three groups. Studies I-II give a bird's-eye view of the problems at issue. Studies III-VIII are comparative studies of modern and mediaeval industrial life. Studies IX-XXV are devoted to a direct and detailed study of our present economic organization. In the last group are found such studies as, "Machine Industry—an Example of Modern Technology," "The Work of Money in Economic Organization," and "Financial Institutions and Financial Organizations."

The book is well organized for use as a textbook. Each study begins with a statement of its purposes. At the end of each study are given lists of approximately thirty problems and selected references. Numerous tables and illustrations appear throughout. The book is written in easy, direct style, which is well adapted to secondary-school or junior-college students.

Scientific studies in education.—The results of a number of important investigations of interest are presented in the report just issued by the National Society for the Study of Education.¹ Part I is a report of the Committee on New Materials for Instruction. The materials presented consist of descriptions of 295 projects which have been successfully used in classrooms. The projects are grouped into five large divisions as follows: "New Materials for the Kindergarten," "New Materials for the Primary Grades," "New Materials for Grades IV, V, and VI," "New Materials for the Junior High School," and "New Materials for Special Classes." In the first group we find such projects as "A Kindergarten Circus" and "A Mother Goose Show." In the fourth group the following are typical: "A Cleanliness Campaign" and "A Clearing House." The projects are not described in great detail, but enough of the essential features of each are given to make the descriptions suggestive. There is in addition a bibliography of the project method in the elementary school, in the junior high school, and in the high school. This bibliography contains 394 references which are suitably classified under such headings as, "Philosophical and Psychological Foundations," "Definitions," and "Technique and Administration."

Part II is the report of the Committee on Silent Reading. The report is given in two sections. The first section deals with investigations which present data bearing on the problem of reading, and the second contains examples of concrete exercises which have been actually tried in the classroom. Section 2 is very brief, containing only a sampling of exercises, the exercises given having been used at Detroit, Denver, Cedar Rapids, Racine, and Iowa City. Some of the investigations reported in Section 1 are "Factors Affecting Results in Primary Reading," "Controlling Factors in the

¹ *The Twentieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Part I, "New Materials of Instruction—Second Report by the Society's Committee." Pp. xv+235. \$1.20. Part II, "Report of the Society's Committee on Silent Reading." Pp. ix+172. \$1.00. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1921.

Measurement of Silent Reading," "Individual Difficulties in Silent Reading in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades," "The Development of Speed in Silent Reading," "Motivated Drill Work in Third-Grade Silent Reading," and "The Effect of a Single Reading."

The helpful librarian.—Book lists of significant arrangement and suggestive annotations are among the most valuable of the ways in which librarians are making the riches in their keeping more available for readers. One such list¹ of books of travel makes a clear attempt to correct some of the deficiencies of lists as commonly prepared, the author's specific aim being explained by the following statement from the Preface: "The usual geographical arrangement has given no clue to the wealth of subject-matter in books of travel, and people have often failed to find among them . . . adventure, art, rural life, analysis of national character—because there has been no grouping of travel literature by these essential interests." The works included in the list presented are classified under fifty-six such headings. The entire list is also indexed both geographically and by authors. The announcement is made that similar classifications of biography and essays are in preparation.

Arithmetic with a purpose.—Not unnaturally, modification of the traditional subjects to meet the demands of a redirected education seems to go on most rapidly in those schools expressly intended for vocational training. A textbook² based on the course in arithmetic as organized in one such institution is planned to meet, in trade-school instruction, the needs of "an eighth-grade graduate familiar with the fundamentals of arithmetic but unable to adapt the principles to business problems." The slender volume and limited list of topics are a commentary in themselves on the padding in the traditional arithmetic course. Unconventional, but valuable, are the topics of time slips, "home-makers' problems," family accounts, buying a home on the payment plan, etc.

A second volume³ has for its purpose the development of that type of accuracy and facility demanded by commercial activities. Assuming that a general understanding of mathematical principles has been acquired, the author organizes the material of the book with a view to giving the pupil much practice in the fundamental operations along with the experience of dealing with the widest possible range of problem situations common to commercial transactions. Part I of the book consists of an extensive collection

¹ JOSEPHINE ADAMS RATHBONE, *Viewpoints in Travel*. Chicago: American Library Association Publishing Board, 1919. Pp. 82.

² NETTIE STEWART DAVIS, *Vocational Arithmetic for Girls*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1920. Pp. 137. \$0.70.

³ GEORGE P. LORD, *Rational Arithmetic*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1920. Pp. viii+151. \$1.20.

of practice exercises in the fundamental operations, percentage, trade discount, etc. The second part contains solutions of problems of every sort within the scope of commercial arithmetic. These are solved according to the methods of actual business practice. The problems are so classified that a pupil may readily refer to the proper paragraph number in order to determine the best method of solving any desired problem. The number of problems provided is so extensive that the teacher may make such selection as the needs of any given class require and may arrange the course as desired. The book is adapted for use in business colleges and in commercial high-school classes.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BURGESS, MAY AYRES. *The Measurement of Silent Reading*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1921. Pp. 163. \$1.00.
- CABOT, ELLA LYMAN. *Seven Ages of Childhood*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1921. Pp. xxxiv+321. \$2.75.
- DAVIS, E. E. *The Twentieth-Century Rural School*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1920. Pp. 242.
- HOLME, E. R. *The American University*. Sydney, Australia: Angus & Robertson, 1920. Pp. 242.
- MCGREGOR, A. LAURA. *Supervised Study in English*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xii+220.
- SLEIGHT, W. G. *The Organisation and Curricula of Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. Pp. viii+264.
- SNEDDEN, DAVID. *Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1921. Pp. 322. \$2.50.
- TRACY, FREDERICK. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xi+246. \$3.00.
- TURNER, EDWIN ARTHUR. *The Essentials of Good Teaching*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1920. Pp. xiii+271.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BRIGGS, THOMAS H., MCKINNEY, ISABEL, and SKEFFINGTON, FLORENCE. *Junior High School English. Book I*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. xiv+399.
- BROWN, ROLLO WALTER. *The Writer's Art*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1921. Pp. xv+357. \$2.50.
- CHAMBERLAIN, JAMES FRANKLIN. *Geography, Physical, Economic, Regional*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1921. Pp. xviii+509.
- DAVIS, NETTIE STUART. *Vocational Arithmetic for Girls*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1920. Pp. 137. \$0.70.

- MARSHALL, LEON C., and LYON, LEVERETT S. *Our Economic Organization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. x+503.
- Report of the Conditions of the Teaching of English in the Secondary Schools of New Jersey*. New Jersey Association of the Teachers of English, 1920. Pp. 38.
- SMITH, PRESERVED. *The Age of the Reformation*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. xii+861.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION AND
SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

- Bulletin No. 87, 1919—*Statistics of State Universities and State Colleges*.
Bulletin No. 33, 1920—*Educational Directory, 1920-21*.
Bulletin No. 42, 1920—*Education for Highway Engineering and Highway Transport*.
Bulletin No. 46, 1920—*Organization of State Departments of Education*.
Bulletin No. 1, 1921—*Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications, January, 1921*.
Library Leaflet No. 13, 1920—*List of References on the Use of Pictures in Education*.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- ALLEN, FREDERICK J. *A Guide to the Study of Occupations*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1921. Pp. xiv+183.
- ALLEN, F. STURGIS. *Synonyms and Antonyms*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1921. Pp. xvi+482.
- AMES, FISHER, JR. *American Red Cross Work among the French People*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xvi+178. \$2.00.
- GALLOWAY, THOMAS WALTON. *The Sex Factor in Human Life*. New York: American Social Hygiene Association, 1921. Pp. 142.
- LASELLE, MARY A. *The Joy in Work*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. xvi+180.
- Proceedings of the High School Conference of November 18, 19, and 20, 1920*. Urbana, Illinois: "University of Illinois Bulletin," Vol. XVIII, No. 14. Pp. 307.
- RATHBONE, JOSEPHINE ADAMS. *Viewpoints in Travel*. Chicago: American Library Association Publishing Board, 1919. Pp. 82.
- Seventh Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings*. Philadelphia: "University of Pennsylvania Bulletin," Vol. XXI, No. 1. Pp. 336.

